

ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING
AND SUCCESSFUL INGRATIATION

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According to self-monitoring theory, high self-monitors should be more skilled at self-presentation than low self-monitors. Research has shown that high self-monitors do possess skills ostensibly related to self-presentation, but there is no empirical evidence that they are any better at achieving self-presentation goals. Conversely, the self-presentation literature has identified self-presentation strategies that do facilitate achieving interpersonal goals. One component of self-presentation skill, therefore, may involve knowing what strategy to use in achieving self-presentation success. This research examines the self-presentation strategies used by high and low self-monitors in their attempt to achieve the goal of being liked.

Previous research has found that presenting one's positive interpersonal qualities tend to increase liking, whereas presenting one's abilities and achievements tend to reduce liking. It was hypothesized that when faced with the goal of being liked, high self-

monitors, more so than low self-monitors, would choose to emphasize their positive interpersonal qualities and to be modest in presenting their achievements. It was hypothesized further that the selection of self-presentation strategies would have actual interpersonal consequences. It was predicted that the presentation of positive interpersonal qualities would increase liking, whereas the promotion of abilities and achievements would decrease liking.

Three studies were conducted to test these hypotheses. In two studies, high and low self-monitoring participants fabricated personality descriptions they believed another person would like very much. Contrary to prediction, high self-monitors promoted abilities and achievements more extensively than low self-monitors. In a third study designed to examine self-monitors' expectations regarding different self-presentation strategies, high self-monitors believed that promoting abilities would lead to greater liking than did low self-monitors. Results indicated that presentations that extolled interpersonal qualities did produce greater liking than did presentations that extolled achievements and abilities. Thus, high self-monitors did not use the self-presentational strategy that was more likely to succeed. The implications of the findings are discussed.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SELF-MONITORING
AND SUCCESSFUL INGRATIATION

by

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Chapter 1: Introduction

Frequent self-regulation of behavior in the service of impression management (e.g., Leary & Kowalski, 1990; Schlenker, 1980) is one characteristic of the *high self-monitor* (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Snyder, 1974). High self-monitors are individuals who are motivated to control the impressions they create, and who are skilled at doing so successfully. They select behaviors for particular situations and with particular interpersonal goals in mind. Conversely, low self-monitors rely less on contexts and social cues to guide their behavior and, instead, act in accordance with their internal values and beliefs.

Although self-monitoring has been linked both explicitly and implicitly to strategic self-presentation, the two literatures overlap surprisingly little. First, sources that summarize the self-presentation literature have addressed only sparingly the work on self-monitoring, and likewise, work concerning self-monitoring has been limited in integrating the research on self-presentation. For example, Leary's (1996) recent book on self-presentation devoted less than three pages to self-monitoring, whereas Schlenker's (1980) book on impression management discussed self-monitoring in only five pages. Furthermore, although Snyder (1987) related Goffman's (1959) important insights to self-monitoring, he offered only a limited discussion of the seminal empirical work on self-presentation by Jones and colleagues (e.g., Jones, 1964; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Jones & Wortman, 1973).

Second, self-presentation and self-monitoring research tend to focus on very different things. High self-monitors are believed to succeed at strategic self-presentation through the selection and skillful execution of self-presentation tactics. However, although the self-presentation literature has examined the specific tactics that influence achieving self-presentation goals (e.g., such as being liked or being seen as competent), the self-monitoring literature has addressed individual differences in particular skills that ostensibly are related to self-presentation.

For example, one general skill that has been empirically associated with self-monitoring is the ability to modify and regulate one's expressive behavior (e.g., Gangestad & Snyder, 2000). Empirical attempts to validate the self-monitoring construct have found that professional stage actors scored higher on the Self-Monitoring Scale than university students, and high self-monitors expressed a randomly assigned emotion to naive judges more convincingly than their low self-monitoring counterparts (both studies, Snyder, 1974). Similarly, Lippa (1976) demonstrated that high self-monitors, more so than low self-monitors, could shift between an extroverted and introverted persona (depending on the situation) without revealing their own dispositional tendencies. Other research has shown that high self-monitors are skilled at expressive control and managing their impressions across contexts (e.g., Larkin, 1987; Miller, de Turck, & Kalbfleisch, 1983; Riggio & Friedman, 1982, 1986; Siegman & Reynolds, 1983).

A second general skill associated with self-monitoring is the ability to perceive accurately social cues and read the nonverbal expressions of others. Geizer, Rarick, and Soldow (1977) showed that high self-monitors were better able than low self-monitors to accurately detect deception in the communications of imposters. High self-monitors in

Costanza and Archer (1989) were better than low self-monitors at correctly reading social cues during an interpersonal perception task. Further, Funder and Harris (1986) found self-monitoring to be correlated positively with a measure of social surgency. Relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors put considerable effort into trying to “read” others as an aid in impression management (e.g., Berscheid, Graziano, Monson, & Dermer, 1976; Jones & Baumeister, 1976), and social comparison information appears to be more important to high self-monitors than to low self-monitors (Elliott, 1979; Snyder & Monson, 1975). Other researchers have found similar results (e.g., Brandt, Miller, & Hocking, 1980; Hosch, Leippe, Marchioni, & Cooper, 1984; Mill, 1984).

However, neither expressive control nor skill at reading the expressions of others has been empirically related to self-presentation success (e.g., being liked or being seen as competent) in the self-monitoring literature. Rather, self-monitoring theory implies (Briggs & Cheek, 1988; Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Snyder, 1974; Snyder, 1987) that high self-monitors should be good at self-presentation because these acting and sensitivity skills are assumed to facilitate achieving self-presentation goals. Despite this implication, there is no empirical evidence that high self-monitors actually are more skilled than low self-monitors at selecting and using effective self-presentation tactics.

Conversely, self-presentation research has focused on the behaviors and strategies that facilitate achieving successful self-presentation goals. For example, this literature has indicated flattery is more effective when suspicions of ulterior motives are minimized (Jones & Wortman, 1973), when the flattery has been attuned to the self-esteem of the recipient (Deutsch & Solomon, 1959; S. Jones, 1973; Jones & Schneider, 1968; Walster, 1965), when it has been used with discretion (Aronson & Linder, 1965; but see also

Landy & Aronson, 1968), and when it has been indirect rather than direct (Jones & Wortman, 1973; Kleinke, Staneski, & Weaver, 1972). Similarly, studies suggest that attempts to ingratiate through conforming to other's opinions are more successful when agreement is not slavish (Jones, Jones, & Gergen, 1963) and when the attitude change appears to occur slowly rather than immediately (Jones & Wein, 1972; Sigall, 1970).

Furthermore, ingratiation through favor rendering is more effective to the extent favors are perceived as deliberate (Greenberg & Frisch, 1972; Nemeth, 1970) and are offered in an appropriate context (Schopler & Thompson, 1968). Actors who hope to win positive social regard by the selective promotion of their positive qualities must guess what recipients would like to see (Jones & Wortman, 1973). Particularly successful self-promoters may make more modest self-presentations (e.g., Levine & West, 1976; Miller, Cooke, Tsang, & Morgan, 1992) without self-defacement.

One interpretation of this literature (also suggested by Ring & Wallston, 1968) is that individual differences in *knowing* what social strategy to use to best achieve a goal should predict self-presentation success. However, the skill of knowing the appropriate strategy for a given goal clearly is not the same as the acting skill that characterizes high self-monitors. Just as a highly skilled stage actor who is given the wrong script may fail to create convincingly the desired effect on an audience, so may a skilled social actor fail to achieve his or her interpersonal goal if the script he or she follows is not well suited for the part. High self-monitors may be capable of presenting themselves in many different ways, but high self-monitors do not necessarily know what to present to best achieve their interpersonal goal.

The implication made by self-monitoring theory that high self-monitors are particularly skilled at self-presentation has not been supported empirically. The evidence has not tied expressive control and social sensitivity to success at achieving typical self-presentation goals, nor has it demonstrated that high self-monitors know any better than low self-monitors what self-presentation strategies are effective at achieving these goals. The purpose of the research described herein is to address the latter point—to examine whether high self-monitors, relative to low self-monitors, will be successful at reaching an interpersonal goal by selecting an effective self-presentation tactic. Specifically, it is hypothesized that relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors will select an effective self-presentation strategy (as indicated by the self-presentation literature) over a less effective strategy. It also is hypothesized that high self-monitors will experience greater success with their interpersonal goals (than will low self-monitors) because of the strategy they selected. Confirmation of these two hypotheses will help confirm not only the theoretical understanding of the self-monitoring construct (i.e., that high self-monitors are skilled at achieving self-presentation goals) but also will further inform our understanding of effective self-presentation strategies.

Effective Self-Presentation Strategies

The purpose of this research is to determine whether high and low self-monitors differ in knowing which self-presentation strategies work. Therefore, it is important to identify effective and ineffective strategies that may differentiate them. This task is made difficult, however, by the variety of interpersonal goals that social actors may possess, as well as by the various tactics and techniques that facilitate reaching those goals. Fortunately, the literature (Jones & Pittman, 1982) has identified the goal of being liked

as most commonly held, and considerable research on this goal (e.g., Jones, 1964; Jones & Wortman, 1973) has examined not only the strategies and tactics that increase liking, but behaviors that reduce liking as well.

Therefore, for this research, the hypothesis that high self-monitors are particularly skilled at self-presentation has been operationalized in terms of whether high and low self-monitors differ in knowing what self-presentation strategies will facilitate liking. There is no evidence in the literature that high self-monitors are better than low self-monitors at knowing how to get others to like them. However, finding such evidence would support the contention that high self-monitors are skilled at that aspect of self-presentation.

The specific strategies that affect liking are numerous and varied. One broad strategy that has been found to increase liking involves presenting positive interpersonal traits and qualities: Individuals who demonstrate higher levels of friendliness, kindness, interest, and so on tend to be liked more than individuals who demonstrate lower levels of these traits. Extolling positive interpersonal qualities may signal a desire to form a relationship or to share resources, and this in turn may increase liking. In the absence of such self-presentation, however, perceivers may distrust and dislike target persons because they are unclear of the others' intentions.

Evidence showing the importance of positive interpersonal traits regarding liking comes from Sigall and Johnson (1999, Study 2). In this research, some participants were asked to list (as they came to mind) past instances in which they liked or disliked another person. Participants' responses were categorized overwhelmingly (73.1%) as being interpersonal, as opposed to achievement- and appearance-related. Thus, participants

based their like or dislike of others on the presence of absence interpersonal qualities. In another study (Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986), participants whose goal was to increase liking during an interpersonal interaction were more successful if they showed more interest in their partner, agreed with their partner, and flattered their partner.

Conversely, the strong promotion of achievements and abilities, that is, boasts, may reduce liking. Lay theories regarding how people compensate for shortcomings may lead perceivers to infer that boasters lack precisely those qualities that are being touted (Jones & Wortman, 1973). Consequently, self-promoters' sincerity or honesty may be questioned if they are seen as misrepresenting themselves. Because dishonesty often reduces liking, people who boast about accomplishments may be disliked because they are presumed to be disingenuous in their self-presentation.

Additionally, several lines of research indicate that the competence (i.e., high levels of ability and achievement) of others may be threatening to our esteem (Ferris, Russ, & Fandt, 1989; Tesser, 1988). Publicly promoting one's competence may reduce liking because it increases the salience of this threat by forcing unwanted social comparison. Festinger (1954) suggests that Western cultures place particular value on achievements, and accordingly, people may be more sensitive to social comparison information in achievement-related domains. Consistent with this contention, research (Sigall & Johnson, 1999) has found that people tend to value their own achievements more so than their own interpersonal qualities. Because boasts often are perceived as intentional, if not malicious, those who strongly promote their abilities and achievements may come across as highly insensitive to the feelings of others.

There is empirical evidence supporting the contention that promoting abilities and achievements reduces liking. Levine and West (1976), for example, found that actors who boasted were seen as less personally attractive than actors who did not boast, and Miller et al. (1992) found that boasters were liked less than those who described themselves positively, but without bragging. Godfrey, Jones, and Lord (1986) also found participants whose goal was to be seen as competent were liked less when they discussed their achievements and abilities with their interaction partner. A variety of field studies also have confirmed that the self-promotion of achievements and abilities is negatively correlated with positive social regard (e.g., Howard & Ferris, 1996; Judge & Bretz, 1994; Orpen, 1996; Wayne, Liden, Graf, & Ferris, 1997).

The fact that boasting reduces liking may not be surprising. However, it is not uncommon for people to use self-promotion (of abilities and achievements), even in situations where it is important to be liked. We all know from personal experience that people sometimes boast. Field research (e.g., Howard & Ferris, 1996; Orpen, 1996) on boasting indicated that such behavior does occur in real-world settings. Furthermore, there is evidence that people believe self-promotion is an effective means to being liked. Sigall and Johnson (1999, Study 1) found that participants who were induced to engage in strong self-promotion of abilities and achievements predicted that they would be liked more than participants who were led to engage in moderate self-promotion. Participants in the strong self-promotion condition, however, were liked less than those in the moderate self-promotion condition.

In summary, this research shows that one broad, effective strategy for increasing liking involves presenting positive interpersonal qualities to the target person and that one

broad ineffective—if not harmful—strategy involves strongly promoting achievements and abilities. Other lines of research have suggested similar meaningful distinctions between positive interpersonal qualities and competence qualities (e.g., Fiske, Xu, Cuddy, & Glick, 1999; Slater, 1955). The fact that it is not uncommon for social actors to select the less effective, boastful strategy is particularly interesting.

Individual differences in self-presentation ability may be reflected in the appropriate selection of one strategy over another. The strong presentation of positive interpersonal qualities and the modest promotion of abilities and achievements (when faced with the goal of being liked) may indicate high self-presentation ability. In contrast, the strong promotion of abilities and achievements may indicate low levels of self-presentation ability. If high self-monitors are particularly good at self-presentation, then they—more so than low self-monitors—should choose to present their interpersonal qualities strongly and their abilities and achievements modestly to maximize liking.

The first study examined whether high and low self-monitors differ in what personality information (achievement-related vs. positive interpersonal traits) they select to present to a target person under the goal of being liked. Since past research suggests that the strategy of presenting positive interpersonal qualities and being very modest about abilities and achievements increases liking, it was predicted that high self-monitors, more so than low self-monitors, would rely on this strategy.

This study also examined contextual information that might guide participants' choice of strategies. In one condition, participants received information designed to cue participants that the alleged target person would be particularly sensitive to the promotion of abilities and achievements. Because high self-monitors are thought to be particularly

sensitive to situational cues (e.g., Gangestad & Snyder, 2000; Snyder, 1987), it was predicted that in the presence of such information, they would be particularly more likely to select the theoretically appropriate strategy.

Finally, the study examined the relationship between participant sex and the sex of the alleged target person. Although prior research suggests that women tend to be more sensitive to the negative consequences of self-promotion than men (e.g., Daubman & Sigall, 1997; Sigall & Johnson, 1999), there were no specific hypotheses regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and sex.

Chapter 2: Study 1

Method

Overview

Participants completed the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986) and then were instructed to fabricate structured personality descriptions with the explicit goal of making them as likeable as possible. Participants were told that at a later date another person would read the personality profile they created, and that this individual would rate how much they liked the person described. Participants were told their goal was to create a personality description that they believed would receive as high liking ratings as possible.

After receiving instructions on how to complete the personality profiles, but before actually working on them, participants were given information about the person who allegedly later would examine and rate the profile they created. First, all participants were told the sex of their target person; whether the target person was male or female was randomly determined. Next, half of the presenters were told their target person would receive positive personality feedback shortly before forming an impression of the profile, whereas the other half were told their target person would receive negative personality feedback shortly before forming an impression.

After receiving this information, participants were asked to complete a personality profile. The first step in creating these profiles involved selecting from a list one interpersonal- or achievement-related personality fact to include in the description. The

second step involved indicating on Likert-scales the extent to which different personality traits were characteristic of the person described.

Participants

Sixty-four participants (32 men and 32 women) took part in the study as a partial fulfillment of a course requirement. Participants were run in small groups of up to five at a time. All participants signed an informed consent agreement.

Procedure

All data collection was administered by two female research assistants¹. Participants were brought into the lab and told that the study concerned personality and impression formation. Participants were told that they would be asked to complete several personality measures, and then they would create a personality description. After receiving general instructions, participants were escorted to individual lab rooms. Once separated, each participant was given a packet of personality questionnaires to complete. The critical measure in the packet was the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986); however, it was included among measures related to optimism and wishful-thinking (e.g., Scheier & Carver, 1985; Sigall, Kruglanski, & Fyock, 2000) to disguise the focus on self-monitoring. These other measures were not scored or used in any analysis.

After participants completed the questionnaires, they were given materials for the construction of their personality profile. Participants were told their goal in this study was to fabricate a personality description that would be liked very much by another person

1 Although the two research assistants were similar in appearance and in training, it is possible that some of the results may be due to differences between them. However, because the data was aggregated across the two research assistants, variance attributable to differences between researchers could not be estimated.

who examined the description. Participants were told explicitly their goal was not to describe themselves, but rather to create the personality description that they believed would be maximally liked. Participants were told that at a later date, another participant would read over the profile they created and would give his or her impressions. The experimenter told participants they should try to maximize the liking ratings that would be given by this other person.

Creating the personality profiles was a two-step process. In the first step, participants were given a fact sheet (see Appendix I) containing eight different personal facts that a person might use to describe him or herself. Half of the personality facts on the list were positive, and the other half were negative. Additionally, half of the facts were designed to reflect interpersonal qualities or characteristics (e.g., kindness or helpfulness), and the other half were designed to reflect achievements or accomplishments. In all, there were two negative interpersonal facts, two positive interpersonal facts, two achievement successes, and two achievement failures. These facts were generated by the experimenter and at face value reflected the *a priori* categories.

Presenters were asked to select one of these eight facts (i.e., the one that they believed would most increase liking) to include in the first part of their Personality Profile form. They were instructed to copy the selected fact from the fact list onto a space on the Personality Profile form that read “In the space below, I have described an interesting event or fact about myself.”

The second step in the profile construction involved indicating the extent to which different personality traits characterized the person described. The Personality Profile

form was written from the perspective of the first person and read, "The ratings applied to the personality traits below accurately describe the person that I know I am." Following this were 15 personality traits, each accompanied by an 11-point Likert-type scale labeled at the endpoints by "Not at all Characteristic" and "Extremely Characteristic."

Participants were asked to complete the personality description by indicating the extent to which each trait characterized the person. Thus, participants were instructed to create a personality description by indicating which traits from the list were relatively highly characteristic, moderately characteristic, and uncharacteristic, along the 11-point scale.

After receiving these instructions (but before they began working on the description), participants were provided with information about the person who ostensibly would later read and evaluate their profiles. All participants were told the other person (the target person) would be an undergraduate psychology student, and they were also told this person's sex. Unbeknownst to participants, the alleged sex of this other person was determined randomly.

Next, participants were randomly assigned to receive one of two different information sets about the target person. The purpose of this manipulation was to cue participants in one condition that the target person might be particularly sensitive to the strong promotion of abilities and achievements, and to cue participants in the other condition that target persons would not be particularly sensitive to this strategy. The manipulation was based on one used by Daubman and Sigall (1997), in which some participants were led to believe that the target of an interpersonal interaction had recently received negative performance feedback. It is reasonable that if boasting about abilities and achievements reduces liking in part because it threatens esteem, then individuals

whose esteem has been lowered (i.e., by receiving negative feedback) should particularly dislike those who boast. High self-monitors, more so than low self-monitors, were expected to use this situational information to guide the selection of personality information to present in the personality profile.

Participants were told the target persons would believe the research was concerned with “personality type and judgment performance.” Participants were told that these target persons first would take a personality test on *Emotional Intelligence* and that they would receive *bogus* feedback on how they scored. The experimenter explained to participants that people often are asked to engage in performance tasks shortly after they receive evaluations, and that the purpose for providing bogus feedback to the target persons is to examine how they perform after receiving an evaluation.

Participants were told that the target persons would receive either a well-below average score on the emotional intelligence test, or they would receive a well-above average score on the test. Thus, half of the participants were randomly assigned to learn that the feedback given would be negative, whereas the other half were assigned to learn that the feedback given would be positive. The experimenter then provided participants with the exact nature of the feedback by allowing them to read the same materials that target persons ostensibly would read. These materials (see Appendix I) included a general description of emotional intelligence, and a description of what it means to be low, average, and high on that trait. The experimenter told participants that although the feedback provided to target persons would be bogus, the target persons would be convinced by the feedback that they received.

After participants were provided with information regarding their target person, they were instructed to complete the personality profile with a description that they believed another person would like very much.

Dependent Measure

The dependent measure in this study was the content of the completed Personality Profile forms (see Appendix I). Each profile contained one personality event or fact (selected from a list of eight) that either was positive-interpersonal, positive-achievement, negative-interpersonal, or negative-achievement. In addition, profiles contained 15 trait items accompanied by 11-point Likert scales. These Likert scales were labeled with “Not at all Characteristic” at the low endpoint and with “Extremely Characteristic” at the high endpoint. Three trait items (Friendly, Considerate, and Kind) were related to positive interpersonal qualities, four items (Accomplished, Brilliant, Creative, and Hard-Working) were related to achievements and abilities, and four items (Impulsive, Expressive, Intuitive, and Disciplined) were related to emotional intelligence. Four remaining trait items (Truthful, Humble, Dominant, and Genuine) were not analyzed.

Predictions

In general, high self-monitors were predicted to use the theoretically more effective strategy (over the less effective strategy) to a greater extent than low self-monitors. However, an interaction between self-monitoring and feedback also was predicted. Because high self-monitors are sensitive to situational cues, high self-monitors in the negative feedback condition should be particularly less likely to promote abilities and achievements, but instead present positive interpersonal qualities; high self-monitors should perceive target persons in the negative feedback condition as being highly

sensitive to boasts, and should select a self-presentation strategy accordingly. However, because low self-monitors are considered to be less sensitive to social cues, their choice of strategy should vary less as a function of feedback. There were no specific predictions regarding the sex of the participants or of the target persons.

Analytic Procedure

Most analyses in this and subsequent studies used the General Linear Model procedure in SPSS (Version 9.0.1), and used Type III Sums of Squares for the estimation of unique variance. Typically, this analysis was used to estimate the relationship between self-monitoring and the outcome variables, and to test heterogeneity of slopes across conditions. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Other analyses relied on the logistic regression procedure in SPSS.

All analyses used a method of model reduction in effort to produce more parsimonious models, as well as to rule out model indeterminacy. Accordingly, when the highest-level interaction of a model was not statistically significant, that interaction effect was removed from the model and the reduced model was tested again. Thus, for designs with only two variables, the reduced model would contain only main effects. For designs with three variables, the reduced model with two-way interaction and the main effects then were analyzed, and so on. In general, if no interaction effects of the highest level were statistically significant, then all effects of that level were removed. In all cases, the error term and degrees of freedom from the full model was used.

The statistical assumptions underlying the use of general linear models (e.g., Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Lindman, 1974) were examined for each analysis. This was accomplished through inspection of normal probability plots, scatter plots, testing the

residuals for outliers, and use of the Bartlett Chi-square test of homogeneity of variances. Unless specifically noted elsewhere, there was no evidence that the assumptions were violated for a given analyses. Detailed results and interpretations of the tests of assumptions are detailed in Appendix III.

Results

Participants' self-monitoring scores were computed according to Snyder and Gangestad (1986). The mean self-monitoring score was 10.6, the median was 10, and the standard deviation was 3.3.

Analysis of Profile Content

The first analysis focused on participants' selection of the personality fact to include in the profile. Of the 64 participants, all but one selected a fact that was either positive interpersonal ($N = 51$) or positive achievement ($N = 12$). The different versions of each type of fact (i.e., the two possible positive achievement facts and two possible interpersonal facts) were treated interchangeably. The one participant who included a negative interpersonal event was excluded from this analysis. Binary logistic regression was used to analyze the relationship between the independent variables (participant sex, target person sex, feedback, self-monitoring, and the interactions) and the selection of an achievement- or an interpersonal-related fact.

Initial analyses (of the full model) revealed no statistically significant interactions. However, analysis of the main effects model did reveal a statistically significant main effect for self-monitoring, Wald (1) = 4.4, $p < .05$. High self-monitors were significantly more likely than low self-monitors to include an achievement-related fact in the personality profile ($B = .23$; odds ratio = 1.27).

Next, the analysis focused on the extent to which participants used achievement-related traits and interpersonal traits as highly characteristic in the profiles. The items Friendly, Considerate, and Kind were averaged together to form an interpersonal index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$). The items Accomplished, Brilliant, Creative, and Hard-Working were averaged together to form an achievement index. However, reliability of this index was poor (Cronbach's $\alpha = .60$). The interpersonal index and the achievement index were significantly correlated ($r = .34, p < .05$), and interpersonal scores ($M = 9.9$) were significantly higher than were achievement scores ($M = 8.6$), $t(63) = 8.2, p < .01$.

Analysis of the interpersonal index was conducted to determine whether self-monitoring related to use of positive interpersonal qualities in the personality profiles, and to test whether this relationship varied across sex and feedback conditions. The analysis revealed no significant four-way interaction but did yield a statistically significant interaction between presenter sex, feedback, and self-monitoring, $F(1, 48) = 5.7, p < .05$. The pattern of results (displayed in Figure 1) revealed that for males who believed the target person would receive positive feedback, self-monitoring was positively associated with the interpersonal index ($B = .08$). However, this relationship was negative² for males who believed their rater would receive negative feedback ($B = -.11$). For female participants, the association between self-monitoring and interpersonal scores approached zero regardless of the feedback ($B = .01$ for positive feedback; $B = -.00$ for negative feedback).

2 The difference in slopes for male participants was statistically significant, $t(49) = 1.88, p < .05$, one-tailed).

Analysis also reveal a significant interaction between participant sex, target person sex, and feedback³, $F(1, 48) = 4.2, p < .05$. The results suggest (see Figure 2), in general, that profiles higher in interpersonal scores were created when the perceived target person was male. The exception to this pattern was for male participants in the negative feedback condition; they created profiles higher in interpersonal traits for female target persons than for male target persons. This general pattern was confirmed with a one-tailed complex *post hoc* t-test based on Scheffé, $t(48) = 1.97, p < .05$.

Analyses of achievement scores failed to yield any statistically significant main effects or interactions involving self-monitoring. Thus, there was no evidence that high and low self-monitors differed in the extent to which they indicated achievement traits as being characteristic of the persons described in the profiles. However, there was a statistically significant three-way interaction involving participant sex, target person sex, and feedback, $F(1, 48) = 6.7, p < .05$. The pattern of results revealed that in the positive feedback condition, participants promoted abilities and achievements to target persons of their own sex (for male presenters, the *difference* in achievement scores between male and female target persons was 0.9; for female participants, $D = -.4$). However, in the negative feedback condition, participants had higher achievement scores for opposite sex target persons (for male participants, $D = -1.0$; for female participants, $D = .82$). This general pattern was confirmed with a one-tailed complex *post hoc* t-test based on Scheffé, $t(48) = 2.0, p < .05$.

3 A test of homogeneity of variances revealed statistically significant differences among within-group variances, Bartlett Chi-Square (7) = 15.74, $p < .05$. When a cubic transformation was performed on the interpersonal scores variable, heterogeneity of variables was eliminated ($p > .05$). Analysis of this transformed variable also yielded a statistically significant ($p < .05$) three-way interaction (involving participant sex, condition and target sex). The pattern of this effect was identical to that of the untransformed variable. Only the results of the analysis of the untransformed variable are described.

A final set of analyses were conducted on profile items related to the construct of emotional intelligence. The information provided in the emotional intelligence material described individuals low in emotional intelligence as being impulsive, undisciplined, unexpressive, and lacking intuition. Those high in emotional intelligence were described to the contrary. Because participants were aware of these descriptions, they may have constructed their profiles with these specific trait dimensions in mind. Participants—particularly high self-monitors—might have believed that one approach to being liked by a “vulnerable” target person would be to avoid promoting those trait dimensions that the target persons ostensibly believed they were lacking. Thus, high self-monitors were predicted to create profiles that suggested a relative lack of discipline, impulsiveness, and so on, when they believed that their target person would be vulnerable.

A multivariate GLM analysis was conducted on the items Expressive, Intuitive, Disciplined, and Impulsive. However, analysis revealed no statistically significant multivariate interactions or main effects.

Discussion

The results from Study 1 were inconsistent with the hypotheses. The general prediction was that high self-monitors would present positive interpersonal qualities more, and promote abilities and achievements less, than low self-monitors. However, relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors were more likely to select an achievement-related fact than an interpersonal one. Thus, high self-monitors selected the strategy that had been found to reduce liking to a greater extent than low self-monitors.

Beyond this main effect, other effects involving self-monitoring were moderated by feedback and sex. Regarding the use of positive interpersonal traits, self-monitoring

appeared to be a moderating factor for male participants but not for female participants. Male high self-monitors (relative to male low self-monitors) created profiles higher in positive interpersonal qualities when they believed that the target received positive feedback. However, male high self-monitors were less inclined than male low self-monitors to use positive interpersonal traits when they thought the target person would receive negative feedback. These findings (at least concerning males) are contrary to the contention that high self-monitors would be sensitive to alleged “vulnerability” of target persons.

The experiment did not include measures designed to check on the effectiveness of the feedback manipulation.⁴ In the absence of direct evidence that participants perceived target persons in the negative feedback condition as vulnerable, it might be argued that the effects of feedback, which did not conform to the hypothesis, are better understood in terms of some other psychological construct. However, no obvious alternative construct has surfaced. Nevertheless, the lack of clarity involving the construct validity of the feedback manipulation is one limitation of this study.

Self-monitoring did not predict the use of interpersonal qualities for female presenters. It is not clear why self-monitoring would predict ingratiation differentially as a function of sex. The trend in Figure 1 suggests that female presenters used interpersonal

4 A manipulation check was not included in the experiment because presenting such an item to participants prior to collecting the dependent measure would have risked creating demand characteristics. The cover story focused participants on their role as subjects of evaluation, and to ask them to evaluate the target person would have undermined the cover story. As noted, an earlier manipulation used by Daubman and Sigall (1997) did produce effects that reasonably could be attributed to differences in perceived vulnerability. Moreover, as Sigall and Mills (1998) have noted, manipulation checks, although desirable at times, are not essential. Had the feedback manipulation produced the predicted effect, the interpretation would have been straightforward, as there does not seem to be a competing alternative interpretation. Because the effect was unpredicted, the manipulation check would not have been helpful. The usefulness of such a check is greatest when there is *no* effect of manipulation.

traits more in the negative feedback condition than in the positive feedback condition ($p = .06$, one-tailed, using the full model error term), which is consistent with norms regarding gender roles and social sensitivity (e.g., Daubman & Sigall, 1997). Women, on average, may be more nurturing than their male counterparts, and naturally more inclined to present positive interpersonal qualities regardless of self-monitoring. However, for men—who perhaps have a lower average level of social sensitivity—the self-presentation tendencies that emerged may have been more a function of their self-monitoring.

The use of interpersonal qualities in the profiles also differed as a function of presenter sex, perceiver target sex, and feedback. The results revealed that male presenters were more likely to present positive interpersonal qualities to a “vulnerable” female target than to a “vulnerable” male target. This finding may be consistent with traditional sex roles (i.e., the male taking care of the vulnerable women). Nonetheless, it is not clear why for every other combination of presenter and rater sex, the trends suggest that profiles intended for male targets were higher in interpersonal scores than those intended for female targets.

Self-monitoring did not relate to inclusion of achievement-related traits. However, the inclusion of achievement traits in the personality profiles did vary as a function of presenter sex, target sex, and condition. The interpretation of these results is not entirely clear. The data suggest that presenters promote abilities and achievements towards target persons of their same sex when they believed that target persons received positive feedback, but that they use promote abilities and achievements towards opposite sex target persons who ostensibly received negative feedback.

Chapter 3: Study 2

The first study produced evidence contrary to prediction. High self-monitors, more so than low self-monitors, chose to include an achievement-related fact rather than a positive interpersonal fact in their attempt to create a maximally liked personality profile. Furthermore, male high self-monitors were less likely than male low self-monitors to present positive interpersonal qualities under conditions where the target person may have been perceived as particularly vulnerable. According to past research on self-presentation and liking, both of these findings reflect a poor choice of self-presentation strategy by high self-monitors. These results suggest that perhaps high self-monitors are relatively *less* skilled in this aspect of self-presentation than are low self-monitors.

Because the results of Study 1 were unexpected, Study 2 was conducted to replicate the general findings. Study 2 differed from the first study in that the feedback manipulation was no longer included (i.e., participants were given no information regarding the psychological state of the target person), and that participants only created personality profiles for target persons of their own sex. Furthermore, the procedure for creating the personality profiles was different.

In addition, Study 2 included a second phase of data collection where new participants were recruited to actually read and rate the personality profiles from the first stage. Thus, Study 2 allowed an empirical test of the assumption that presenting positive interpersonal qualities is an effective strategy for increasing liking, and that promoting abilities is an ineffective strategy. Study 2 was designed specifically to examine more

closely whether the strategic choices that differentiated high and low self-monitors had actual interpersonal consequences.

Method

Overview

Participants completed the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986) and then fabricated structured personality descriptions with the explicit goal of making them as likeable (to another person) as possible. Participants created these personality profiles by selecting traits from a list and then indicating whether or not these traits were highly characteristic and moderately characteristic of the person in the description. The list that participants could choose from contained both positive interpersonal- and achievement-related traits.

As a replication of Study 1, it was predicted that high self-monitors would use the less effective strategy relative to low self-monitors. Achievement-oriented strategies were defined as ineffective, and positive interpersonal strategies were defined as effective, on the basis of prior research. However, rather than rely entirely on this prior research, Study 2 included a phase of data collection designed to validate this assumed relationship between self-presentation strategy and actual liking.

Accordingly, after all of the personality profiles were created, a second wave of participants examined each profile and gave their impressions (i.e., ratings of liking and perceived competence) of the person described. The purpose of collecting this data was not only to replicate the previous research on the relationship between self-presentation and liking, but also to determine whether profiles created by high self-monitors actually were liked less than those created by low self-monitors.

Participants

In the first stage of the study, 91 participants (38 men, 53 women) were recruited from an introductory psychology class. Participation constituted partial fulfillment of a course requirement. Participants were run in small groups of up to six at a time. In the second stage of the study, 91 participants were recruited from an introductory psychology class and were run in small groups of up to six at a time. Each participant from the second stage was paired with data from a participant (of the same sex) from the first stage. All participants signed an informed consent agreement.

Procedure

Profile Fabrication Stage

All data collection was administered by a female experimenter. Participants run in the profile-fabrication stage of the study will be referred to as presenters. All presenters were told that the study was concerned with how people describe themselves and how people form impressions of others. Presenters were told that they would be asked to complete a packet of questionnaires and create a structured personality description. All presenters signed an informed consent agreement before taking part in the study.

First, presenters were given a packet of questionnaires. The critical measure in this packet was the 18-item Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder & Gangestad, 1986; see Appendix I), but this scale was placed among measures of optimism and wishful-thinking to help disguise the central interest in self-monitoring. After completing this packet, presenters were given a second packet that included instructions for creating a personality profile and a Personality Profile form. The packet also included a copy of the Impressions form.

All instructions for creating the personality profiles were administered in writing. Presenters were asked to create a personality description following a structured format, and were given the goal of creating a description that would be liked very much by another person who read it. Presenters were told that at a later date another participant would read carefully the profile they created and give his or her impressions of the profiled person. Presenters were instructed to try to maximize as much as possible the liking ratings that the profile would receive. The instructions made clear to presenters that they were not being asked to describe themselves, but rather they were to create a fictitious personality profile based on what they believed would produce maximally high liking ratings.

The Personality Profile form (see Appendix I) first provided presenters with an opportunity to provide some basic demographic information. An instruction sheet directed participants to list their first name, age, sex, place of birth, and number of brothers and sisters on the form. Although presenters were instructed to provide their real sex, they were told they could fabricate their name, age, and place of birth if they so wished.

Next, presenters were asked to list four traits that were highly characteristic of the person in the profile, four traits that were somewhat characteristic of the person in profile, and one trait that was not characteristic of the person in the profile. These instructions were worded on the Personality Profile form in the first person so that the individual who later would read the profile would interpret its content as a *self*-presentation. For example, the Personality Profile form read specifically, "Listed below are 4 traits that I believe are *highly characteristic* of me. I believe that these traits are central to my

personality.” Regarding somewhat-characteristic traits, the sheet read, “Below I have listed 4 more traits that I believe are only *somewhat characteristic* of me. These traits describe who I am some of the time, but at other times they do not really describe me.” The last part of the Personality Profile sheet read, “Finally, I have listed a trait that generally is *not characteristic* of me. Most of the time, this trait does not describe me.”

Presenters were asked to create the profile by selecting traits to copy onto the Personality Profile form from a fixed trait list. The list (see Appendix I) presenters received contained 40 personality traits. Of these, 25 were categorized *a priori* to be interpersonal (e.g., good listener, thoughtful, friendly), and 15 were categorized *a priori* to be achievement-related (e.g., accomplished, artistic, brilliant). Some of these traits were taken from previous research (Sigall & Johnson, 1999), and others were generated by the experimenter and selected because they matched (at face value) the *a priori* categories. All presenters received the same list.

After completing the profiles by copying four highly characteristic, four moderately characteristic, and one uncharacteristic trait onto the profile form, presenters were reminded that another participant of their same gender would later examine and rate the personality profile they created. Presenters were asked to make predictions about how this other participant would rate them. Presenters were told to look carefully over the profile they had created and to make their predictions by completing the Impressions form. The form used for prediction was identical to the one that participants who were raters would use in the second phase of the study.

Impression Formation Stage

Participants in the impression formation stage of the study will be referred to as raters. Raters were told that the study concerned impression formation. They were told that as participants in the study they would examine a personality description and give their impressions of the person described.

The experimenter told raters that during the previous semester, participants had been asked to create written personality descriptions and that these descriptions were hand-copied onto new forms. Raters were told that they would be given one of the personality description forms. The experimenter then gave each rater a packet that contained instructions (reiterating those given orally by the experimenter), a copy of a Personality Profile form from the profile fabrication stage, and a copy of the Impression form. In all cases, raters received a profile that was created by a presenter of his or her own sex.

Raters were instructed to examine the personality profile carefully and to “consider that the person who created the profile was describing him or herself to you.” After examining the profile, raters gave their impressions by completing the Impressions form.

Dependent Measures

This study used two dependent measures (see Appendix I). The first dependent measure was the Personality Profile form itself; profiles created by presenters differed in the number achievement and interpersonal traits used to describe the person. Each profile was scored on the number of highly characteristic achievements (range 0–4), the number

of moderately characteristic achievements (range 0–4), and whether the not at all characteristic trait was achievement related (0 or 1).

Both presenters and raters completed the Impressions form. Presenters completed the form by giving their predictions regarding how they would be rated, whereas raters completed the Impressions form with their actual impressions of the person described in the profile. The form itself had been used in previous research (Sigall & Johnson, 1999). It consisted of seven trait dimensions each measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The low end of the scale (1) was labeled “Very Little,” and the high end of the scale (7) was labeled “Very Much.” By circling values between 1 and 7 on the scales, raters could indicate whether they believed the person in the description had very little to very much of the trait dimension. Similarly, presenters could predict whether the raters would see them as having very little to very much of each trait.

Three of the trait items—Likeable, Personable, and Friendly—were categorized as measures of liking. Three different trait items—Competent, Successful, and Capable—were thought to reflect perceived competence. The final trait item, Modest, was analyzed separately.

Predictions

The personality theory of self-monitoring would predict high self-monitors to select more effective self-presentation strategies than would low self-monitors. However, the unexpected results from Study 1 were inconsistent with this original hypothesis. The purpose of Study 2 was to replicate the results of Study 1; thus, high self-monitors were predicted to promote more abilities and achievements rather than to present positive interpersonal qualities in attempt to create a maximally likeable personality profile.

It also was predicted that personality profiles created by participants in fact would be liked less to the extent they contained abilities and achievements (relative to positive interpersonal qualities). These findings would support previous research from the self-presentation literature that the promotion of abilities and achievements reduces liking. The results also could allow stronger conclusions to be made regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and the selection of effective vs. ineffective strategies.

Analytic Procedure

Study 2 employed the same analytic procedure and tests of assumptions as did Study 1. There was no evidence that any of the assumptions were violated. Detailed results and interpretations of the residual analyses are detailed in Appendix III.

Results

Analysis of Profile Content

Self-monitoring scale scores were computed according to Snyder & Gangestad (1986). The mean self-monitoring score was 10.7, the standard deviation was 3.3, and the median was 11.

The first set of analyses focused on the construction of personality profiles as a function of presenter self-monitoring and sex. To examine whether high and low self-monitors differed in the fabrication of personality profiles, three sets of scores were computed for each profile. The first set of scores reflected the number of achievement-related traits that presenters indicated were highly characteristic of the person described in the profile. Thus a high achievement score (ranging from 0 to 4) was created for each profile. Second, a moderate achievement score (ranging from 0 to 4) was created to reflect the number of achievement-related traits that presenters indicated were somewhat

characteristic in the profile. Finally, a not characteristic score (coded as 0 or 1) was created to reflect whether the uncharacteristic trait was achievement related. Because all traits either were achievement or interpersonal, a high achievement score necessarily indicated that the profile was low in the number of interpersonal traits included.

On average, profiles included only .86 (median = 1) high achievement traits and only 1.4 (median = 1) moderate achievement traits. Only 4 of the 91 presenters included three or more high achievement traits, and only 11 of the 91 presenters included three or more moderate achievement traits. Thus, in general, presenters were relatively modest in their promotion of abilities and achievements. Presenters' high achievement scores and moderate achievement scores were not significantly correlated ($r = .05$).

A General Linear Model analysis of high and moderate achievement scores treated self-monitoring scores as a continuous variable and allowed it to interact with the between-groups variable sex. The purpose of this analysis was to test the relationship between self-monitoring and profile content, and to test whether this relationship differed between men and women. Analysis revealed no two-way interaction between sex and self-monitoring on high achievement scores, but analysis of the main effects model revealed a statistically significant main effect for self-monitoring, $F(1, 87) = 4.2, p < .05$, as well as a statistically significant main effect for sex, $F(1, 87) = 7.0, p < .01$. Examination of the main effect for self-monitoring revealed a positive association between self-monitoring and the number of highly characteristic achievement traits used in the profile ($B = .05$, see Figure 3). Furthermore, the main effect for sex revealed that profiles from male pairs had more highly characteristic achievement traits ($M = 1.1$) than did profiles from female pairs ($M = 0.6$).

Analysis of moderate achievement scores revealed no statistically significant main effects for sex, self-monitoring, or the interaction between the two. Binary logistic regression further revealed no statistically significant relationships between sex and self-monitoring, nor did it reveal a statistically significant interaction on whether or not the non-characteristic trait was achievement-related.

Presenters' Rating Predictions

Next, analysis focused on presenters' predictions of how their profiles would be rated. The purpose was to determine whether high and low self-monitors had different expectations regarding how the profiles they created would be rated. The dependent measure items Likeable, Personable, and Friendly were averaged to create a *predicted* liking index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .74$), and the items Competent, Successful, and Capable were averaged to create a *predicted* competence index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$). The correlation between predicted liking ratings and predicted competence ratings was statistically significant, $r(87) = .22, p < .05$. The Modesty item was analyzed separately.

The analysis included self-monitoring, sex and their interaction as independent variables. Results revealed no statistically significant main effects or interaction for sex and self-monitoring on predicted liking ratings. Furthermore, no statistically significant main effects or interaction were found regarding predicted competence ratings.

However, analysis of predicted modesty ratings revealed statistically significant main effects both for sex, $F(1, 87) = 4.5, p < .05$, and for self-monitoring, $F(1, 88) = 5.0, p < .05$. Female presenters predicted that their profiles would be rated as more modest ($M = 5.1$) than did male presenters ($M = 4.5$). Furthermore, presenters who were

higher in self-monitoring predicted that they would be seen as less modest than did individuals who were lower in self-monitoring ($B = -.09$).

Raters' Impressions of Profiles

During the second phase of the study, rater participants examined each profile and gave their impressions on the Impression form. Responses to the items Likeable, Personable, and Friendly were averaged to form an *actual* liking-rating index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$), and responses to the Competent, Successful, and Capable items were averaged to create an *actual* competence-rating index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$). The correlation between liking and competence ratings was statistically significant, $r(89) = .29, p < .01$.

Profiles differed in the number of achievement-related traits that presenters listed as being highly characteristic, moderately characteristic, and not at all characteristic. Presenter-rater pairs also differed on sex. Therefore, an analysis was conducted to determine whether liking, competence, and modesty ratings of profiles varied as a function of presenter-rater sex, high achievement score, moderate achievement score, and not at all achievement score.

Analysis of the main effects⁵ model revealed that liking ratings were significantly associated with the number of highly characteristic achievement traits included in the profiles, $F(1, 86) = 15.3, p < .01$. Profiles were liked less to the extent that they listed more achievement-related traits as being highly characteristic ($B = -.40$, see Figure 4). However, sex, number of moderately characteristic achievements, and the presence of a not at all characteristic achievement trait all failed to significantly predict liking ratings.

None of the four independent variables significantly predicted competence ratings.

However, the number of highly characteristic achievement traits did relate significantly to modesty ratings, $F(1, 86) = 7.4, p < .05$. Profiles were judged to be less modest to the extent that they included more highly characteristic achievement traits ($B = -.40$).

Raters' Impressions and Presenter Self-Monitoring

The previous analysis revealed that high self-monitors were more likely than were low self-monitors to use highly characteristic achievement traits in their profiles.

Analysis also found that profiles were liked less to the extent they contained more highly characteristic achievements. It is plausible, from these results, that ratings of profiles created by high self-monitors would be liked less than those created by low self-monitors. It also is plausible that any such differences would be mediated by the use of highly characteristic achievements in the profiles.

The General Linear Model was used to examine whether raters' liking ratings of the profiles varied as a function of the self-monitoring of the profile creator. In this analysis, presenter-rater sex was included and allowed to interact with self-monitoring. However, the results revealed no statistically significant main effects or interaction between self-monitoring and sex.⁶

Analyses also were conducted on competence ratings of the profiles. Presenters' sex, self-monitoring, nor the interaction was significantly related to competence ratings.

5 A main effects model was used because there were no a priori expectations regarding interactions among the different content features of the Personality Profiles.

6 Additional analyses of actual liking, competence, and modesty ratings were conducted using the upper- and lower-thirds of the self-monitoring distribution (as opposed to treating self-monitoring as a continuous variable). These 'extreme groups' analyses failed to find statistically significant relationship between self-monitoring and actual ratings.

Neither did analysis of the modesty item reveal significant main effects for sex and self-monitoring or the interaction between them.

Accuracy in Predictions as a Function of Self-Monitoring

After presenters created their profiles, they made predictions⁷ regarding how they would be rated. Two sets of analyses were conducted to examine the extent to which presenters were accurate in predicting how they would be liked. The first analysis used as the dependent measure the difference between presenters' predictions and their actual liking ratings. Higher (positive) scores reflected an overestimation of liking ratings made by presenters, whereas lower (negative) scores reflected an underestimation by presenters. Results of this analysis revealed no statistically significant main effects or interaction.

A second analysis focused on the *absolute value* of the difference between predicted and actual liking ratings. Values closer to zero for this dependent measure reflected greater accuracy in predicting liking rating, whereas larger values reflected greater inaccuracy—regardless of whether the inaccuracy was an overestimation or underestimation. This analysis revealed a statistically significant interaction between self-monitoring and sex, $F(1, 85) = 4.2, p < .05$. As depicted in Figure 5, for male pairs, higher self-monitors tended to be less accurate than did lower self-monitors ($B = .09$). However, for female pairs, the relationship between self-monitoring and accuracy was much closer to zero ($B = -.02$).

⁷ However, two of the 91 participants did not complete their predictions and thus could not be included in analysis

Discussion

The results from Study 2 were consistent with those from Study 1, and were contrary to the original prediction. The results revealed that relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors included more high achievement traits in their profiles than did low self-monitors. Thus, high self-monitors more often used the self-presentation strategy that had been defined as *less effective* in the self-presentation literature.

The results, however, did confirm the hypothesis that presenters' choice of self-presentation strategy would have interpersonal consequences. Consistent with previous self-presentation research, the results from Study 2 showed that personality profiles were liked less to the extent that they were high in achievement-related traits. The evidence suggests that choosing to promote abilities and achievements is inferior to presenting positive interpersonal qualities when attempting to increase liking.

An individual's selection of a more effective self-presentation tactic over a less effective tactic would seem to reflect some degree of self-presentation skill. The evidence that high self-monitors, relative to low self-monitors, relied on an inferior interpersonal strategy suggests that they are less skilled in this aspect of self-presentation. High self-monitors promoted abilities in their profiles, and these profiles were liked less to the extent that they were high in achievement-related traits. This finding is inconsistent with the original prediction of this research, that high self-monitors will know better than low self-monitors what self-presentation strategy to use to increase liking.

However, the study did not produce evidence that high self-monitors actually were liked less than were low self-monitors. High self-monitors did use the ineffective self-presentation strategy more so than low self-monitors, but not all high self-monitors

engaged in that strategy. On average, personality profiles included only one high achievement trait, and very few profiles included three or more high achievement traits. Although high self-monitors did create the profiles that included higher numbers of high achievement traits, the relatively low overall counts of strong self-promoters may have attenuated the link between presenter self-monitoring and liking ratings.

It is not clear why high self-monitors used more high achievement traits in their profiles. Perhaps high self-monitors did not understand the negative consequences associated with promoting achievements and abilities. Analysis revealed that high self-monitors predicted relatively lower modesty ratings than low self-monitors, so it appears as if they were somewhat aware of their behavior. High self-monitors did not appear to overestimate the extent to which their profiles actually were liked, however Study 2 did show that *male* high self-monitors⁸, more than other participants, were less accurate in general in predicting how much their profiles would be liked. Although this does not explain why high self-monitors were more likely to rely on self-promotion, it does lend itself to the interpretation that high self-monitors are less skilled at one aspect of self-presentation—knowing the outcomes of the self-presentation—than the self-monitoring literature would imply.

⁸ Although there were no explicit predictions regarding sex, these results are consistent with previous findings that women are more sensitive than men to the negative consequences associated with promoting achievements and abilities (e.g., Daubman & Sigall, 1997).

Chapter 4: Study 3

Examining high self-monitors' beliefs regarding the consequences of self-presentation is an intriguing approach to understanding their choice of self-presentation strategy. However, the method used in Study 2 to examine high and low self-monitors' expectations had limitations. Because not all high self-monitors strongly promoted ability and achievements in their profiles, the relationship between self-monitoring and predictions may have been attenuated. Therefore, a third study was designed to examine more closely the outcome expectations of high and low self-monitors. In Study 3, greater control was exercised over the actual self-presentations that presenters used.

Method

Overview

The third study borrowed from the methodology of the second study, and incorporated methodology from Sigall and Johnson (1999) as well. During the first stage of this study, participants were recruited to be presenters and were asked to complete a Personality Profile form. However, unlike in Study 2, presenters in Study 3 were instructed to describe *themselves* rather than fabricate a personality description under the goal of being liked. Presenters were randomly assigned to receive one of two Personality Profile forms: one version was structured so that presenters' profiles invariably would promote achievements and abilities, and a second version was structured so that profiles invariably would present positive interpersonal qualities. After creating their profile, presenters were asked to complete an Impressions form predicting how they would be rated.

In the second stage of this study, another set of participants was recruited to be raters. Each rater received a personality profile that was created by a presenter of his or her own gender. Raters were asked to examine carefully the profile they were given and then to complete the Impression form.

Participants

Presenters included 81 undergraduate psychology students (22 men and 59 women) who were given extra credit for their participation. Presenters were run in large groups. Eighty-one rater participants (with the same sex distribution) were used during the second stage of the study. All participants signed an informed consent agreement.

Procedure

Profile Fabrication Stage

All data collection was administered by a male experimenter. Presenters were told the study concerned personality and impressions. Each presenter was given a packet that included the 18-item Self-Monitor Scale, along with several measures of optimism and wishful thinking (to help disguise the study's focus on self-monitoring). Following these personality measures was a set of instructions on how to complete the Personality Profile form, a copy of the Personality Profile form, and a copy of the Impressions form (see Appendix I).

The Personality Profile form and the Impressions form were identical to those used in Study 1: both forms provided space for presenters to include four highly characteristic traits, four moderately characteristic traits, and one not at all characteristic trait. The instruction sheet asked presenters to describe themselves by selecting from a

list of traits, but did not mention any self-presentation goal (other than to “describe yourself”).

Presenters were given two lists of traits—List A and List B. Presenters were instructed to select four traits from List A that were highly characteristic of them and to list these traits in the appropriate place on their profile form. Presenters then were instructed to select four traits from List B that were moderately characteristic of them and to copy those traits onto their profile form. Finally, presenters were instructed to select one trait from either List A or List B that was not at all characteristic of them and to copy that trait to the appropriate place on the profile form.

The contents of Lists A and B varied as a function of the profile condition. Half of the presenters were assigned to the achievement condition. For these participants, List A contained all achievement- and ability-related traits (generated beforehand by the experimenter), and List B contained all positive interpersonal traits (also generated by the experimenter). Thus, presenters assigned to this condition were required to create profiles that included all highly characteristic achievement traits and all moderately characteristic interpersonal traits. The remaining presenters were assigned to the interpersonal condition. For these presenters, List A contained all positive interpersonal traits, and List B contained all achievement-related traits. Presenters assigned to this condition were forced to create profiles that were high in interpersonal qualities but moderate in achievements.

After presenters copied the four highly characteristic traits, four moderately characteristic traits, and one not at all characteristic trait onto the profile sheet, it was complete. Then, presenters were instructed to examine their profiles carefully to make

predictions about how another psychology student (of their same gender) would rate them. Presenters gave their predictions by completing the Impressions form in the same fashion that they believed that the other person would complete it.

Impression Formation Stage

In the second phase of the study, raters were recruited to take part in a study on impression formation. They were told that they would examine a personality description and give their impressions of the person described.

The experimenter told raters that during the previous semester, participants had been asked to create written personality descriptions and that these descriptions had been hand-copied onto new forms. Raters were told that they would be given one of the personality description forms. The experimenter then gave each rater a packet that contained instructions (reiterating those given orally by the experimenter), a copy of a completed Personality Profile form from the profile fabrication stage, and a copy of the Impressions form. In all cases, raters received a profile that was created by a presenter of his or her own gender.

Raters were instructed to examine the personality profile carefully and to “consider that the person who created the profile is describing him or herself to you.” After examining the profile, raters gave their impressions by completing the Impressions form.

Dependent Measure

Both presenters and raters completed the Impressions form. Presenters completed it by giving their predictions regarding how they would be rated, whereas raters completed the dependent measure with their actual impressions of the person described in

the profile. The Impressions form itself had been used in previous research (Sigall & Johnson, 1999). It consisted of seven trait dimensions each measured on a 7-point Likert scale. The low end of the scale (1) was labeled “Very Little,” and the high end of the scale (7) was labeled “Very Much.” By circling values between 1 and 7 on the scales, raters could indicate whether they believed the person in the description had very little to very much of the trait dimension. Similarly, presenters could predict whether raters would see them as having very little to very much of each trait.

Three of the trait items—Likeable, Personable, and Friendly—were categorized as measures of general liking. Three different trait items—Competent, Successful, and Capable—were thought to reflect perceived competence. The final trait, Modest, was analyzed separately.

Analytic Procedure

Analysis of data from Study 3 followed the same procedures as Study 1. There was no evidence that any assumptions were violated. Detailed results and interpretations of the residual analyses are detailed in Appendix III.

Results

Presenter self-monitoring scores were computed according to Snyder and Gangestad (1986). The median self-monitoring score was 10, the mean was 9.8, and the standard deviation was 3.9.

Presenter Self-Monitoring and Predictions

Presenters’ predictions on the Likeable, Friendly, and Personable items were averaged together to form a reliable predicted liking-rating index (Cronbach’s $\alpha = .78$). The Competent, Successful, and Capable items were averaged together to form a

reliable predicted competence-rating index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .82$). The correlation between predicted liking ratings and predicted competence ratings was not statistically significant ($r = .13$).

Analysis of predicted liking ratings revealed no statistically significant three-way interaction among sex, profile condition (achievement vs. interpersonal), and self-monitoring. However, there was a statistically significant two-way interaction between self-monitoring and condition, $F(1, 73) = 5.4, p < .05$. For presenters in the achievement condition, there was a positive association between self-monitoring and predicted liking ratings ($B = .11$). The relationship was close to zero ($B = -.02$) in the interpersonal condition. This pattern is reflected in Figure 6. There were no significant effects involving sex, nor were the main effects for profile condition or self-monitoring statistically significant.

Analysis of predicted competence ratings revealed no statistically significant three- or two-way interactions. Analysis of the main effects model did reveal a statistically significant main effect for condition, $F(1, 73) = 7.2, p < .01$. Presenters assigned to the achievement condition predicted higher competence ratings ($M = 5.6$) than did those assigned to the interpersonal condition ($M = 5.1$).

Analysis of the predicted modesty item revealed a statistically significant interaction between sex, self-monitoring, and condition, $F(1, 73) = 10.3, p < .01$. The pattern of results is given in Figure 7, but the interpretation of this pattern is not entirely clear. For male presenters, self-monitoring was positively associated with predicted modesty in the achievement condition ($B = .11$), but was negatively associated ($B = -.27$) in the interpersonal condition. For women, the relationship between self-monitoring and

predicted modesty was negative in the achievement condition ($B = -.12$) and close to zero in the interpersonal condition ($B = .00$).⁹

Ratings of Personality Profiles

Raters' ratings of the Likeable, Friendly, and Personable items were averaged together to form a reliable predicted liking-rating index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$). Ratings of the Competent, Successful, and Capable items were averaged together to form a reliable predicted competence-rating index (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$). The correlation between liking and competence ratings was not statistically significant ($r = .11$).

Analysis of raters' liking ratings did not reveal a statistically significant three-way interaction (involving sex, self-monitoring, and condition) or any significant two-way interactions. However, analysis of the main effects model did reveal a statistically significant main effect for condition, $F(1, 73) = 19.5, p < .01$. As depicted in Figure 8, profiles that were created in the achievement condition were liked significantly less ($M = 4.5$) than profiles created in the interpersonal condition ($M = 5.5$).

Analysis of raters' competence ratings did not reveal statistically significant main effects or interactions. Analysis of modesty ratings revealed no statistically significant two- or three-way interactions, but analysis of the main effects model revealed significant main effects for condition, $F(1, 73) = 8.2, p < .01$, as well as sex, $F(1, 73) = 6.2, p < .05$. Profiles created in the achievement condition were rated as less modest ($M = 3.8$) than those created in the interpersonal condition ($M = 4.9$). Furthermore, profiles created by men were rated as less modest ($M = 3.8$) than were profiles created by women ($M = 4.7$).

⁹ The difference in slopes for men was statistically significant, $t(73) = 2.84, p < .01$, one tailed; for women, the difference in slopes only approached statistical significance ($p = .07$, one-tailed).

Accuracy in Predictions as a Function of Self-Monitoring

After presenters created their profiles they made predictions regarding how they would be rated. Two sets of analyses were conducted to examine the extent to which Presenters were accurate in predicting how they would be liked. The first analysis used as the dependent measure the difference between presenters' predictions and their actual liking ratings. Higher (positive) scores reflected an overestimation by presenters, whereas lower (negative) scores reflected an underestimation on the part of presenters. Results of this analysis revealed no two- or three -way interactions but did find a statistically main effect for Condition, $F(1, 73) = 11.3, p < .01$. As shown in Figure 9, presenters in the achievement condition overestimated the extent to which they would be liked ($M = .81$), whereas presenters in the interpersonal condition were more accurate ($M = -.19$).

A second analysis focused on the absolute value of the difference between predicted and actual liking ratings. Values closer to zero for this dependent measure reflected greater accuracy in predicting liking rating, whereas larger values reflected greater inaccuracy—regardless of whether the inaccuracy was an overestimation or underestimation. This analysis revealed no statistically significant effects.¹⁰

Examination of Alternative Explanations

It is plausible that traits within the achievement condition varied in their degree of “boastfulness”, and that high and low self-monitors may have differentially selected these traits. Evidence that high self-monitors did select less boastful traits than low self-monitors would mitigate interpretation of the results. However, because presenters in

¹⁰ Additional analyses of accuracy ratings for competence and liking ratings were conducted using the upper- and lower-thirds of the self-monitoring distribution (as opposed to treating self-monitoring as a

Study 3 were asked to describe themselves, were not given an explicit self-presentation goal, and were not informed that profiles would be evaluated until after they completed them, it is unlikely that high and low self-monitors would select different specific achievement traits for reasons of self-presentation.

Nevertheless, an analysis was conducted to examine the actual use of individual achievement traits as a function of self-monitoring. Of the 20 possible achievement traits, 13 were used by at least five participants in the achievement condition. Accordingly, 13 separate binary logistic regressions were conducted to test whether the likelihood of trait use (vs. non-use) varied as a function of self-monitoring. No attempts were made to control for Type I errors, so the statistical power of these tests was not reduced. Results revealed that none of the 13 achievement traits were any more (or less) likely to be used by higher self-monitors (all p -values $> .05$). Thus, there is no evidence that high vs. low self-monitors differentially selected traits within the achievement condition.

Discussion

The results of Study 3 suggest that high self-monitors, relative to low self-monitors, believe that promoting abilities and achievements will produce higher liking ratings. However, contrary to high self-monitors' predictions, raters liked profiles created in the achievement condition less than those created in the interpersonal condition. It appears as if high self-monitors misunderstood the negative consequences of self-promotion. This interpretation is aided by the fact that the predictions of high self-monitors did not differ from those of low self-monitors in the interpersonal condition.

continuous variable). These 'extreme groups' analyses failed to find statistically significant effects involving self-monitoring.

Thus, high self-monitors do not believe that they will be liked more than low self-monitors regardless of the strategy that they use.

High self-monitors incorrectly assessed the general reduction in liking that has been associated with strong self-promotion. The study did not provide evidence, however, that high self-monitors actually overestimated the extent to which their profiles were liked. It appears as if the difference between predicted liking ratings and actual liking ratings simply did not relate to self-monitoring strongly enough.

The presence of a main effect for profile condition on the overestimation of predicted liking ratings replicates the findings by Sigall and Johnson (1999). As in that study, individuals who were led to create boastful self-presentations overestimated the degree to which they would be liked. The results in the present study were particularly surprising because they were found both for female and male presenters. The similar study conducted by Sigall and Johnson used only male participants because evidence from pilot data suggested that women would be more sensitive to the negative consequences of boasting.

The results of all three studies were contrary to original hypothesis regarding the relationship between self-monitoring and choice of self-presentation strategy. However, the results (of studies 2 and 3) were highly consistent with predictions regarding the relationship between self-presentation strategy and liking. These studies found that self-presentation characterized by the promotion of abilities and achievements reduced liking relative to the expression of positive interpersonal qualities. The results from the current research, however, show that high self-monitors, more so than low self-monitors, elected to promote ability and achievement-related traits when faced with the interpersonal goal

of trying to maximize liking. The research also found that higher self-monitors (relative to lower self-monitors) predicted that strong self-promotion would engender higher liking ratings.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

This research was conducted to address an empirical gap in the self-monitoring literature. High self-monitors have been conceptualized as being skilled at self-presentation, and research has found that high self-monitors are skilled at expressive control and reading the nonverbal expressions of other people. Nevertheless, research has not linked high self-monitors to particularly high levels of success at typical self-presentation goals.

There were two potential approaches to examining the relationship between self-monitoring and success at self-presentation. One approach was to examine whether the acting and sensitivity skills that high self-monitors were known to possess indeed facilitated the achievement of self-presentation goals. The second approach was to examine whether or not high self-monitors would use the strategies and techniques that the self-presentation literature indicated was effective. This research focused on the latter question and examined whether, relative to low self-monitors, high self-monitors would know what personality information to present in effort to accomplish a self-presentation goal.

The research drew specifically from evidence (e.g., Godfrey, Jones, & Lord, 1986; Levine & West, 1976) that in social situations, presenting positive interpersonal qualities (such as kindness and friendliness) tended to increase liking, whereas promoting one's accomplishments and achievements tended to reduce liking. It was hypothesized that high self-monitors, relative to low self-monitors, would be more likely to present interpersonal qualities and only modestly promote achievements when faced with the

goal of trying to be liked. Results consistent with this hypothesis would suggest that high self-monitors are more skilled at self-presentation than low self-monitors in knowing which broad interpersonal strategy effectively increases liking.

The results of these three studies suggest that high self-monitors are less skilled than low self-monitors in selecting the appropriate self-presentation strategy to facilitate liking. Relative to low self-monitors when attempting to maximize Liking, high self-monitors were less likely to present positive interpersonal qualities, were more likely to promote achievements and abilities, and believed to a greater degree that promoting abilities and achievements would increase liking. Male high self-monitors were less accurate in their predictions regarding liking ratings than were other participants.

Equally important were the results that promoting abilities and achievements, relative to presenting positive interpersonal qualities, actually reduced liking. These findings not only confirmed previous empirical work on self-presentation, but also supported the contention that individual differences in strategy-selection could reflect one aspect of self-presentation skill: choosing to promote abilities and achievements over presenting interpersonal qualities has interpersonal consequences.

Limitations

Given that the promotion of abilities and achievements reduces liking and that high self-monitors are relatively more likely to use self-promotion, it is plausible that high self-monitors would be liked less. However, the research did not reveal that high self-monitors actually were liked any less than low self-monitors. Thus, one limitation of the study was the failure to find a statistically significant relationship between self-monitoring and actual interpersonal outcomes. The failure to find this logically

anticipated effect is attributed to low statistical power. Not all high self-monitors in the studies engaged in self-promotion, and relatively few did to an extreme. This may have attenuated the relationship between self-monitoring and liking.

A second limitation concerned the reciprocal relationship between use of achievement traits and positive interpersonal qualities. The results of Studies 2 and 3 are interpreted in terms of the promotion of achievements and abilities, that is, profiles were disliked to the extent that they included achievements. However, it is just as likely that those profiles were disliked because they included fewer positive interpersonal qualities. Thus, it is not clear if one strategy in particular was driving the effect.

Only in Study 1 was the use of interpersonal- and achievement-related traits independent of each other. In that study, self-monitoring was not significantly related to the endorsement of achievement, but it was related to the endorsement of interpersonal qualities. However, that relationship was moderated by the feedback manipulation, and the lack of a manipulation check—combined with the unpredicted results—puts the overall effect into question. Although the results were interpreted as reflecting that high self-monitors refrained from presenting positive interpersonal qualities to “vulnerable” target persons, there was no evidence that participants actually perceived target persons in the negative feedback condition as vulnerable.

High self-monitors did present positive interpersonal qualities more to participants in the positive feedback condition further detracts from interpretability. The cross-over interaction between feedback condition and self-monitoring underscores the importance of understanding the psychological impact of the feedback manipulation on participants. Without evidence that the feedback manipulation led participants to perceive

target persons as differentially vulnerable, it is not clear what that result from Study 1 contributes to the understanding of self-monitoring and ingratiation.

General Conclusion

The three studies presented herein show consistently that high self-monitors, relative to low self-monitors, mistakenly believe that self-promotion increases liking. However, the conclusions drawn from this research address only a small part of the larger question regarding self-monitoring and self-presentation. For example, the selection of ingratiation (i.e., presenting positive interpersonal qualities) versus self-promotion (of abilities and achievements) is only one such self-presentation choice. High self-monitors may select and execute with success other strategies for other social goals.

Further, high self-monitors may be relatively adept at other aspects of ingratiation and self-promotion other than those explored in this research. Once high self-monitors choose to use ingratiation, they may know better how to endear themselves through flattery and favor rendering, and other ingratiating tactics. The procedures used in the present research did not allow participants to explore or exploit those avenues.

Finally, high self-monitors may possess the skills needed to succeed at self-presentation without knowing *a priori* which tactics will work. This research intentionally limited self-presentation to written exercises for the explicit purpose of minimizing the impact of extraversion (and social skills that are related to extraversion). In face-to-face encounters (as opposed to self-presentation on paper), high self-monitors may not need knowledge of which strategies are effective to succeed at interpersonal goals. Mechanical mastery over their expressions and behaviors, along with the intuitive sensitivity to reading the expressions of others, may be sufficient for high self-monitors

to achieve self-presentation success. When placed in face-to-face encounters, high self-monitors may be able to determine what is appropriate simply by reading the expressions of the people around them, and then convincingly create the appropriate persona through their acting skills. The research presented herein did not examine the relationship between the social skills of high self-monitors have and effectiveness of those skills in face-to-face encounters.

It cannot be determined from this research whether high self-monitors are skilled at self-presentation. However, the evidence presented here surprisingly suggests that high self-monitors do tend to select self-promotion over ingratiation as a strategy to increase liking, when in fact promoting abilities and achievements reduces liking. This choice of strategies by high self-monitors is explained, in part, by evidence that high self-monitors believe self-promotion to be an effective tool for increasing liking. Based on these results, high self-monitors do not appear to be the socially suave, sophisticated, and successful individuals that the self-monitoring literature portends that they are. However, additional research is needed to better define how self-monitoring truly relates to self-presentation, and to better integrate these two bodies of literature that, on the surface, should be indelibly entwined.

Appendix I: Study Materials

Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder, 1974): Studies 1, 2 and 3

PLEASE READ THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS CAREFULLY AND INDICATE TRUE OR FALSE FOR EACH ONE.

1. I find it hard to imitate the behavior of other people.
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.
4. I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
6. I would probably make a good actor.
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be.
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone else or in their favor.
12. I have considered being an entertainer.
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
14. I have trouble changing my behavior to suit different people and different situations.
15. At a party, I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
16. I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite as well as I should.
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Personality Profile Fact List: Study 1

Listed below are 8 different facts or stories. Select one to include in your Personality Profile that you believe will create the most positive impression.

Fact 1

I won the Student-Athlete Award at my high school. I had the 2nd highest GPA in my school and I lettered in basketball and lacrosse. I was offered two scholarships from Maryland B one for my grades and one to play lacrosse. I took the scholarship for my grades.

Fact 2

My uncle owns a car dealership and lets me work there during the summers. He gives me a free car to use and pays me a lot more money than any of my friends make. Some college students get worried about finding a job after college but I know I don't have to worry because I'm set. It's great not to have worry about grades.

Fact 3

I've spent the last 2 years trying to learn how to play tennis, but I'm really bad! I was even paying a private coach to help me but he got so frustrated with me that he quit. I'm just one of these people who can't do sports.

Fact 4

I've been working at the gas station for a while now. I keep trying to get a better job but no one seems to be hiring. I'm signed up for college classes, but I never wind up going so I'm flunking out here too.

Fact 5

On my friend's 19th birthday, I organized a huge surprise party. I even brought in some of her friends from out of town. It was a blast! I love doing surprises like this for my friends.

Fact 6

I've been volunteering at a nursing home for a while. There are so many people there whom no one visits and it makes me feel good to know that spending time with them really means something.

Fact 7

At the beginning of the semester my best friend was having trouble adjusting to school and kept wanting to talk and bringing me down. Sometimes people just have to deal on their own so we haven't talked since.

Fact 8

Other people just bug me so I don't have too many interesting stories about them. I like to sleep and watch TV and play PlayStation.

Personality Profile Form: Study 1

In the space below I have described an interesting fact or event about me.

Using the scales below I have indicated the extent to which I believe the following traits characterize who I am as a person.

					Accomplished						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Friendly						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Disciplined						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Truthful						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Hard Working						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Expressive						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Intuitive						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	

Personality Profile Form: Study 1 (continued)

					Brilliant						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Considerate						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Dominant						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Impulsive						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Creative						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Genuine						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Humble						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	
					Kind						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
Not At All										Extremely	
Characteristic										Characteristic	

Emotional Intelligence Feedback: Study 1

Understanding Emotional Intelligence

There is no arguing that performance on classical IQ tests is importantly related to professional success. However, *Emotional Intelligence* is also very important. *Emotional Intelligence* concerns the extent to which people understand the sources of their emotions, are able to express them appropriately and yet show proper restraint when necessary. *Emotional Intelligence* pertains also to knowing when to pursue, and when to let go of, emotional issues.

One could almost say that emotional intelligence is a prerequisite for the proper development and actualization of our other intellectual abilities. Emotional Intelligence is related to important psychological characteristics such as stability, communication, social insight and creativity. Furthermore, success both in relationships and in professional workplaces depends greatly on these psychological factors. Emotional Intelligence during young adulthood has been found to predict success—in both career and in interpersonal relationships—later in life.

Emotional Intelligence Feedback: Study 1 (continued)

Emotional Intelligence Scores: 1- 20

Scores between 0 and 20 make up the lower third of the Emotional Intelligence scale distribution. People with scores in this range generally are considered to have Emotional Intelligence that is lower than average. Low Emotional Intelligence potentially can have a negative impact on many aspects of life such as relationships, emotional health, and career motivation. People who are low in Emotional Intelligence tend to show very extreme ranges of emotions. At times they can be overly and inappropriately expressive, impulsive, and lacking discipline—perhaps prone to behaving or saying things without first considering propriety or consequence. Yet at other times people low in Emotional Intelligence can be entirely too inexpressive, unaffected by events around them, and out of touch with their emotions. Unfortunately, people who are low in Emotional Intelligence often choose to be highly expressive during times when restraint is needed, and they tend to be emotionally distant during times when compassion is needed. People who are low in Emotional Intelligence often have difficulty developing creativity and tend to be low in intuition.

Emotional Intelligence Scores: 21—40

Scores between 21 and 40 make up the middle third of the Emotional Intelligence scale distribution. People with scores in this range generally are considered to have Emotional Intelligence that is about average. The majority of people fall within this range. Average Emotional Intelligence often is sufficient for moderate success in many aspects of life, including relationships, emotional health, and career motivation. People with average emotional intelligence tend to avoid showing extreme emotions, and generally express emotions that are appropriate for the situation. Those with average Emotional Intelligence at times can be impulsive and act without thinking, and at times can be inexpressive, but extreme examples of these are few and far between.

Emotional Intelligence Scores: 41—60

Scores between 41 and 60 make up the upper third of the Emotional Intelligence scale distribution. People with scores in this range generally are considered to have Emotional Intelligence that is higher than average. High Emotional Intelligence potentially can have a very positive impact on many aspects of life such as relationships, emotional health, and career motivation. People who are high in Emotional Intelligence tend to show extreme ranges of emotions, but do so in appropriate situations. At times they can be expressive, spontaneous and open about their revealing their true opinions, while other times they are more conscientious, careful and considerate. People who are high in Emotional Intelligence can distance themselves from emotional experience when it is beneficial to do so. People who are high in Emotional Intelligence often are very creative and are highly intuitive.

Personality Profile Form: Studies 2 and 3

My name is _____ and I am a _____ year old _____
attending the University of Maryland. I was born in _____ and I have
_____ brothers and _____ sisters.

List below are 4 traits that I believe are highly characteristic of me. I believe that these traits are central to my personality.

_____	_____
_____	_____

Below I have listed 4 more traits that I believe are only somewhat characteristic of me. These traits describe who I am some of the times, but other times they do not really describe me.

_____	_____
_____	_____

Finally, I have listed a trait that generally is not characteristic of me. Most of the times, this trait does not describe me.

Personality Profile Instructions and Trait List: Study 2

On the following page is a *Personality Description Form*. You will be asked to create a *Personality Description* by completing the Form. You are not being asked to describe yourself, but rather are being asked to create a personality description that you believe another person will like very much. Next semester, another participant (of your same gender) will read over and evaluate the Personality Description that you create. Your goal is to create a Personality Description that gets as high ratings as possible in terms of being *Likeable*, *Personable* and *Friendly*. The other participant who read the Personality Description that you create will believe that another person is describing himself or herself.

On the **first part** of the Personality Description Form you will be asked to indicate your first name (you can make up a different first name appropriate for your gender if you wish), your age, gender, place of birth and number of brothers and sisters.

On the **second part** of the Personality Form you will be asked to list different personality traits to use in creating the description. From the list at the bottom of the page, select *4 traits* that you want to be highly descriptive of the person being described—four traits that you want to most strongly characterize the personality that you are creating. *Circle* these traits and then copy them into the appropriate place on the Personality Form.

Next, select *4 traits* that you want to be only somewhat characteristic of person being described—four traits that will characterize who this person is some of the time, but not all of the time. Place a *check-mark* next to these traits and then copy them into the appropriate place on the Personality Form.

Finally, select *1 trait* from the list that you want to be not very characteristic of the person described. *Cross-off* this trait and then copy it into the appropriate place on the Personality Form.

TRAIT LIST

High-Achieving	Studios	Academic	Athletic
Funny	Kind	Sweet	Trustworthy
Industrious	Dominant	Clever	Brilliant
Good Listener	Conversationalist	Witty	Giving
Creative	Committed	Successful	Strong
Friendly	Honest	Talkative	Fun
Accomplished	Talented	Skilled	Intelligent
Thoughtful	Generous	Considerate	Truthful
Wealthy	Sophisticated	Gifted	Artistic
Cheerful	Loyal	Understanding	Entertaining

Impressions Form: Studies 2 and 3

LIKEABLE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

COMPETENT

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

SUCCESSFUL

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

MODEST

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

PERSONALBE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

FRIENDLY

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

CAPABLE

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Little						Very Much

Personality Profile Instructions and Trait List: Study 3, Achievement Condition

On the following page is a *Personality Form*. Follow the instructions on this page to complete the Personality Form.

On the **first part** of the Personality Form you will be asked to indicate your first name (you can make up a different first name appropriate for your gender if you wish), your age, gender, place of birth and number of brothers and sisters.

On the **second part** of the Personality Form you will be asked to list 4 personality traits that you feel are highly descriptive of you. Carefully examine the traits from **List A** and select the 4 that you believe most strongly characterize the person that you are. Circle these traits and then copy them traits into the appropriate place on the second part of the Personality Form.

List A

High-Achieving	Studious	Academic	Athletic
Industrious	Dominant	Clever	Brilliant
Creative	Committed	Successful	Strong
Accomplished	Talented	Skilled	Intelligent
Wealthy	Sophisticated	Gifted	Artistic

On the **third part** of the Personality Form you will be asked to list 4 personality traits that you feel are somewhat characteristic. Carefully examine the traits from **List B** and select 4 that describe who you are some of the time, but not all of the time. Circle these traits and then copy them traits into the appropriate place on the third part of the Personality Form.

List B

Thoughtful	Generous	Considerate	Truthful
Friendly	Honest	Talkative	Fun
Cheerful	Loyal	Understanding	Entertaining
Good Listener	Conversationalist	Witty	Giving
Funny	Kind	Sweet	Trustworthy

Finally, on the **fourth part** of the Personality Form select 1 trait from either **List A** or **List B** that you feel generally is not very characteristic of you—select the one trait that describes you least. Cross this trait off and then copy it into the appropriate place on the fourth part of the Personality Form.

Appendix II: Self-Monitoring, Self-Presentation, and Other Constructs

A variety of concepts and measures have been proposed to relate to self-presentation ability and/or motivation. Below is a review of some of these. Emphasis has been placed on highlighting the similarities and differences with self-monitoring and self-presentation.

Machiavellianism

Individual differences in Machiavellianism are posited to predict the use of manipulative and deceptive behavior in their social interactions (Christie & Geis, 1970). Because both Machiavellianism and Self-Monitoring concern impression management, it is reasonable that scores on measures of Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970) would correlate with Self-Monitoring. However, correlations between Machiavellianism and Self-Monitoring have been low (Ickes, Reidhead & Patterson, 1986; Bell, McGhee & Duffey, 1986) or non-significant (Snyder, 1974; Barnes & Ickes, 1979).

In light of these weak findings, researchers have been quick to note conceptual differences between Self-Monitoring and Machiavellianism (Snyder, 1987; Fehr, Samsom & Paulhus, 1992). Although high Machs and high self-monitors both use impression management, their motivations for doing so may be different. Ickes et al. (1986) found that Machiavellianism was associated with self-focus during social interactions, whereas self-monitoring was associated with focus on the interaction partner. Further, while the term “manipulative” often is used to characterize high levels of Machiavellianism, it is not necessarily descriptive of high self-monitoring. It may be fruitful to define *manipulative* self-presentation as that which is deceitful, employed with

a tangible gain in mind, and when successful is likely to produce a gain for the presenter at the expense of the recipient. For example, misrepresenting a product in order to make a sale, feigning distress in order to attract attention, and making disingenuous promises in the act of seduction may all possess manipulative properties.

Although these behaviors certainly are not beyond the scope of the high self-monitor, high self-monitors may also engage in acts of deceptive self-presentation that lack directly tangible goals and that do not pose negative consequences for recipients. High self-monitors may use flattery in order simply to be liked, self-promotion to appear competent, or to tell a white lie to spare another person's feelings. These behaviors appear to lack the manipulateness associated with the Machiavellian personality type.

Nevertheless, those high in Machiavellianism still may possess the skills and motivation to use strategic self-presentation. It is possible that previous failures to find a strong correlation between Machiavellianism (Christie & Geis, 1970) and Self-Monitoring (Snyder, 1974) stem from the multifaceted nature of both scales. The Other-Directedness sub-scale of Self-Monitoring, which does not reflect social surgency, might attenuate the correlations between the overall scale and Machiavellianism (i.e., the contribution of the Other-Directedness subscale to the overall Self-Monitoring score weakens Self-Monitoring as a measure of social ability). Further, the Machiavellianism scale (Mach IV) is composed of separate Tactics and Cynicism factors. While high self-monitors may also score high on the Tactics sub-scale, there is no reason to assume that high self-monitors share the Machiavellian's cynicism. To the author's knowledge, the few comparisons between self-monitoring and Machiavellianism scores have not examined the inter-correlations among the sub-scales.

There is evidence that high Machs are motivated to engage in self-presentation. People high in Machiavellianism, relative to lows, have been shown to use ingratiation when it is to their benefit (Blumstein, 1973), to be selective in the information that they disclose in social situations (Dingler-Duhon & Brown, 1987) and to be more willing to use deception with other people (Geis, Christie, & Nelson, 1970). However, evidence regarding the ability to use self-presentation successfully is mixed. In Exline, Thibaut, Hickey and Gumbert (1970), high Machs were found to lie more believably than lows, and were better at tasks that required bargaining to succeed (Geis, 1970a; Christie & Geis, 1970). High Machs have been found to succeed more than low Machs even when low and high Machs use the same strategies (Geis, Weinheimer, & Berger, 1970).

But in five out of seven studies summarized by Geis and Christie (1970), high Machs did not lie more successfully than lows, and a later study (DePaulo & Rosenthal, 1979) found that high Machs were successful at deception only under certain conditions. Other evidence suggests that high Machs' success at reaching interpersonal goals stems not from conversational timing, skill or the ability to read others, but rather because of their ability to detach emotionally from other interactants (Geis, 1970b). This does not show that high Machs possess the expressive control and interpersonal sensitivity that ostensibly engenders the high self-monitors' success at self-presentation.

It is also noteworthy that none of the items on the Mach IV contain ability-related content. Those items that make up the Tactics sub-scale reflect motivation to engage in manipulative self-presentation or belief that such behavior is justified. The Mach IV plausibly may be considered a measure of self-presentation motivation. It is not reasonable to consider the Mach IV to be a measure of self-presentation ability, as the

only skill consistently related to high Machiavellianism is the ability to detach emotionally from social interactants.

Objective Self-Awareness

The extent to which a person holds himself or herself as the object of consciousness may relate to one's motivations to engage in protective self-presentation. Duval and Wicklund (1972) have presented a theory of objective self-awareness that explores the consequences of heightened self-focus. An important aspect of the theory is that the state of objective self-awareness makes discrepancies between the actual and the ideal self more salient. This discrepancy is thought to be unpleasant, and objectively self-aware individuals thus should be motivated to reduce the discrepancy by shifting focus away from themselves or by changing their behavior. One interpretation of protective self-presentation is that protective individuals sense a discrepancy between their self and some socially based ideal. Protective self-presentation may take place in order to reduce the public realization of this discrepancy. It may be that individuals who are dispositionally high in objective self-awareness will be more likely to utilize protective self-presentation.

Duval and Wicklund acknowledge that some individuals focus on themselves a greater portion of the time than others. But they argue that these differences have more to do with variation in people's immediate situations and environments and less to do with qualities of their dispositions. It is not clear how individual differences in self-presentation can be adequately explained by a phenomenon (objective self-awareness) that is thought to be environmentally constrained. For this reason the theory is not directly relevant to the problem of understanding individual differences in self-

presentation. It is noted that whereas perceiving oneself as a social object and engaging in self-presentation might very be related, objective self-awareness cannot fully explain the motivation to engage in self-presentation. Objective self-awareness may make actual-ideal discrepancies salient, but whether or not a person's ideal self is based on an internal- or a socially normative criteria, and whether or not a person is concerned about reducing this discrepancy involves individual differences may not be relevant to objective self-awareness.

Public Self-Consciousness

Much research has treated self-awareness as a manipulated variable (Duval & Wicklund, 1972) but researchers have become interested in self-consciousness as a naturally occurring individual difference variable (Carver & Glass, 1976). Public Self-Consciousness refers to a general tendency to view oneself as a social object and has been assessed as a personality variable by the Self-Consciousness Scale (SCS; Fenigstein, Scheier & Buss, 1975). Research has found that individuals high in Public Self-Consciousness are more susceptible to pressure to conform (Scheier, 1980) and are more sensitive to the opinions of others (Fenigstein, 1979). High levels of Public Self-Consciousness have been conceptually linked to self-presentation (Buss & Briggs, 1984), and in particular to protective forms of self-presentation (Sheppard & Arkin, 1989; Schlenker & Weigold, 1990). Conceptually, individuals who are more aware of how they are perceived by others may be more motivated to manage their public appearances. However, the empirical evidence supporting this contention is mixed. Carver and Glass (1976) failed to find a statistically significant relationship between Public Self-Consciousness and Social Anxiety, and Lennox and Wolfe (1984) found a moderate

positive correlation with anxiety but no relationship with either factor of the Concern for Appropriateness scale. However, in several studies, Schlenker and others (Schlenker & Leary, 1982; Wicklund & Gollwitzer, 1987; Schlenker & Weigold, 1990; Doherty & Schlenker, 1991) found moderate correlations between Public Self-Consciousness and anxiety, and Miller, Omens and Delvadia (1981) found correlations with both Concern for Appropriateness sub-scales.

Doherty and Schlenker (1991) point out the dilemma faced for individuals high in Public Self-Consciousness. On the one hand, their enhanced state of self-awareness may motivate them to present themselves as having socially attractive qualities. But on the other hand, the desire to avoid disapproval could motivate them to avoid failures at self-presentation. The relative strength of each countervailing motivation should determine behavior. Indeed, Doherty and Schlenker demonstrated that people high in Public Self-Consciousness were willing to be more self-glorifying after a success when potentially invalidating feedback was not available, but tended to behave more cautiously (and consistent with others' expectations) when faced with plausible threats to their self-presentation.

Arkin (1981) summarized essentially the same phenomenon when describing the motivations behind protective self-presentation. But research on protective self-presentation has not examined the behavior of protective high self-monitors when threat of self-presentation failure is mitigated. This research question may be worthy of future investigation.

Need for Approval

Like high self-monitors, individuals who are high in Need for Approval (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964) are thought to behave in socially desirable ways across a variety of situations. Those high in need for approval have been found to conform more, and this may suggest that they possess self-presentation skills and motivations typical of high self-monitors. However, in a sociometric study, those high in Need for Approval were perceived by their peers to be less friendly and less conversational than lows (Crowne & Marlowe, 1964), and in fact highs were found less able to communicate feelings either facially or verbally (Zaidel & Mehrabian, 1969).

Individuals high in Need for Approval do not appear to be suave social engineers in the same way that high self-monitors are thought to be. It seems that Need for Approval may be positively associated with protective self-monitoring but should not be positively related to acquisitive self-monitoring. Indeed, evidence consistent with this contention has been found by a variety of researchers (e.g., Lennox & Wolfe, 1984; Snyder, 1974; Miller, Omens & Delvadia, 1991). Individuals high on the Crowne-Marlowe measure may be motivated to regulate their behavior in order to receive approval in social situations, but may lack expressive self-presentation abilities and skills.

Functional Flexibility

Interpersonal flexibility has emphasized a wide range of interpersonal responses and the appropriate execution of these responses. Paulhus and Martin (1987, 1988) have criticized other measures of interpersonal flexibility (i.e., self-monitoring; androgyny, Bem, 1974; California Psychological Inventory, Gough, 1957) as either failing to directly assess the breadth of individuals' interpersonal repertoire or failing to cover the full range

of interpersonal behaviors. They propose an index of Functional Flexibility based on the assessment of individuals' repertoire of social capabilities. The measure involves having participants indicate their ability at executing a series of social behaviors (for example, "Are you capable of being dominant when the situation calls for it?"). The measure also asks participants to indicate how difficult each behavior is to perform, the anxiety associated with performing each behavior, and the tendency to avoid situations demanding such behavior. A benefit of this measure is that it makes a distinction between *abilities* (which are based on traits) and *capabilities*, the social manifestation of these abilities.

Paulhus and Martin (1987) found that the *Capabilities* subscale of the Functional Flexibility Scale correlated positively with Snyder's (1974) Self-Monitoring Scale, positively with self-esteem, peer ratings of Functional Flexibility, and positively with the *ability to modify expressive behavior* sub-scale of the Revised Self-Monitoring Scale (Lennox & Wolfe, 1984). However, Miller et al. (1991) found a pattern of correlations that paints a less adaptive picture of Functional Flexibility. Functional Flexibility once again correlated positively with the *ability to modify* (and was uncorrelated with the *sensitivity to emotional expression* sub-scale). But it also correlated positively with *protective variability*, was uncorrelated with self-esteem, and it correlated negatively with agreeableness, emotional stability, and several measures of coping. Miller et al. concluded that people high in Functional Flexibility do not seem to be active copers, and in fact come across as relatively hostile and maladapted. It is not clear from this evidence that those high in Functional Flexibility are necessarily high in effective social skills.

Performance Styles Test

Ring and Wallston (1968) created a self-report measure (the Performance Styles Test) to assess three qualitatively different interpersonal styles. The Performance Style of P prefers to avoid interpersonal contexts that require acting as anything other than oneself. P individuals dislike playing roles and are thought to lack both social skills and knowledge regarding role demands across a variety of situations. These individuals appear similar in important ways to low self-monitors. The Performance Style of R reflects a socially surgent interpersonal style. They know what to do in different interpersonal contexts and have the skills to exploit different social situations. The R style appears clearly to be similar to acquisitive high self-monitors. The C style describes individuals whose behavior is dictated almost completely by the interpersonal context. C individuals principally are a passive approval-seeking type, and due to this need for approval should be knowledgeable about what kinds of performance are required across a wide range of situations. The C scale appears to reflect a protective approach to self-presentation.

Ring and Wallston (1968) found that the R scale correlated positively (but weakly) with Machiavellianism, and negatively (but weakly) with Social Desirability. The opposite pattern was found for the C scale. Snyder (1974) found a negative, non-significant correlation between the C scale and self-monitoring, but this was based on a sample size of 24. To this author's knowledge there are no published reports of the correlations among Performance Style Test factors and Self-Monitoring Scale factors.

The Performance Style Test offers one contribution that is not adequately assessed with either Snyder's nor Lennox and Wolfe's self-monitoring scales. The work by Ring and Wallston emphasizes the importance of *knowing* what behaviors are

appropriate for the situation. The skill of knowing how to act appears at face-value to be very different from being sensitive to the emotional expression of others as well as from the ability to modify expressive behavior. It plausibly could be a very important skill, at least in some contexts, in the successful application of strategic self-presentation. However, the Performance Styles Test has received little attention in the literature.

Appendix III: Tests of Statistical Assumptions

Steps were taken to validate the statistical assumptions underlying ordinary least squares analyses (e.g., Cohen & Cohen, 1983; Lindman, 1974). For regression analyses that yielded statistically significant results, residual analyses were conducted and graphically presented. Specifically, normal probability plots and scatter plots were produced for analyses centered on regression (as were examination of residual outliers), and error bar graphs were produced from analyses centered upon group mean comparisons. For comparisons of group means, the Bartlett chi-square test of homogeneity of variances was conducted.

Study 1

Analysis 1: Participant Sex \times Self-Monitoring \times Feedback condition on Interpersonal scores

This statistically significant interaction indicated that the relationship between self-monitoring and interpersonal scores varied across conditions. To examine whether the statistical assumptions were met, separate residual analyses were conducted for each of the four regression slopes. A normal probability plot and a scatter plot of the relationship were produced for each condition. These graphs—presented in Figures 10 (normal probability plots) and Figure 11 (scatterplots)—do not suggest serious violations of assumptions; however, the pattern of residuals within the male, negative feedback condition is less than ideal. Analyses revealed no outliers among the residuals (based on a criterion of 3 standard deviations from the predicted value of Y).

Analyses 2 and 3: Participant Sex x Target Person Sex x Feedback Condition on Interpersonal and Achievement scores

Figure 12 depicts cell means, along with error bars, separately for interpersonal scores and achievement scores, for each of the eight experimental conditions. The cell means are identical to those displayed in Figure 2 and Figure 3, and the error bars are included to depict within-cell variation. However, it is important to note that the analyses that produced the earlier figures used the pooled error term derived from the full model; the error bars displayed in Figure 12 do not represent the appropriate error terms for making post hoc comparisons.

Interpersonal scores ranged from 6.7 to 11. The Bartlett Chi-square test of homogeneity of variances did reveal statistically significant differences among within-group variances, Bartlett Chi-square (7) = 15.74, $p < .05$. However, only very severe violations of this assumption threaten the validity of the F -test (Lindman, 1974). For this reason the three-way interaction was still interpreted. Achievement scores ranged from 5.75 to 10.75. The test of homogeneity of variances failed to reject the null hypothesis ($p = .50$).

Study 2

Analyses 1 and 2: Self-Monitoring + Sex on High Achievement scores and on Predicted Modesty ratings

Analysis revealed statistically significant main effects for self-monitoring and for sex on use of high achievements traits in the personality profile. Statistically significant main effects also were found for self-monitoring and sex on predicted modesty ratings. Residual analyses were conducted on the relationship between self-monitoring and the

respective dependent measure (achievement scores and modesty predictions) after adjusting the outcome scores for the main effect of sex. Normal probability plots and scatter plots are shown in Figure 13. These do not suggest any serious violations of the assumptions underling ordinary least squares regression. The regression of predicted modesty ratings onto self-monitoring identified only one case as an outlier (standardized residual = - 3.3).

Analysis 3: High Achievement scores and Liking ratings

A normal probability plot and a scatter plot of the relationship between high achievement scores and actual liking ratings are depicted in Figure 14. The results do not suggest severe violations of ordinary least squares assumptions, although the normal probability plot suggests that distribution of residuals is less than ideal. Residual analysis revealed only one case as an outlier (standardized residual = -3.4).

Analysis 4: Self-Monitoring x Sex on Absolute Liking predictions

Examination of the normal probability plot of self-monitoring revealed a less than ideal pattern of residuals (see Figure 15), particularly for males. However, the F-test is relatively robust in the face of minor violations of least squares assumptions. Analysis did reveal one residual outlier each for male participants as well as for female participants.

Study 3

Analysis 1: Self-Monitoring x Self-Presentation Condition on Predicted Liking ratings

Analysis revealed no residual outliers. Examination of the normal probability plot and scatterplot (see Figure 16) show no patterns suggesting serious violation of least squares assumptions.

Analyses 2, 4, and 6: Main effects of Self-Presentation Condition on Competence predictions, Actual Liking ratings, and Liking Overestimations

Figure 17 depicts cell means, along with error bars, separately for competence predictions, actual liking ratings, and liking overestimations, for the achievement and interpersonal conditions. The analyses of these measures that revealed statistically significant differences between conditions used the pooled error term derived from the full model; thus, the error bars displayed in Figure 17 do not represent the appropriate error terms for making post hoc comparisons.

Predicted competence ratings ranged from 3.3 to 7.0. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was retained ($p = .33$). Actual liking ratings scores ranged from 1.3 to 7.0. The assumption of homogeneity of variances was retained ($p = .38$). Liking overestimations ranged from -2.7 (underestimation) to 3.3 (overestimation). The assumption of homogeneity of variances was retained ($p = .84$).

Analyses 3 and 5: Self-Monitoring x Sex x Condition on Modesty predictions: Main effects of Condition + Sex on Modesty ratings

Analysis of relationship between self-monitoring and modesty predictions revealed no residual outliers in any of the four conditions. Examination of the normal probability plot and scatterplot showed no patterns suggesting serious violation of least squares assumptions. Analysis of the main effects of condition and sex on modesty ratings revealed equal variances across groups ($p = .36$).

Figures

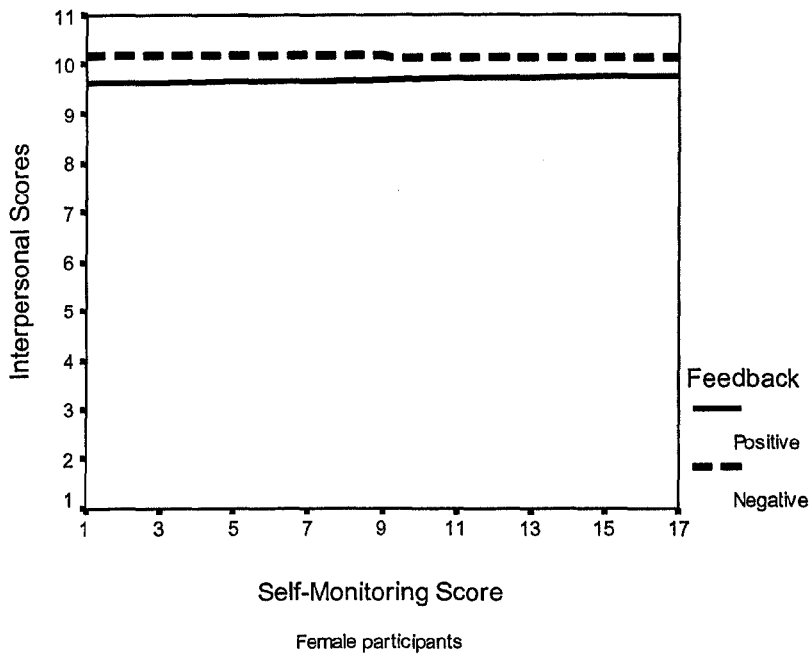
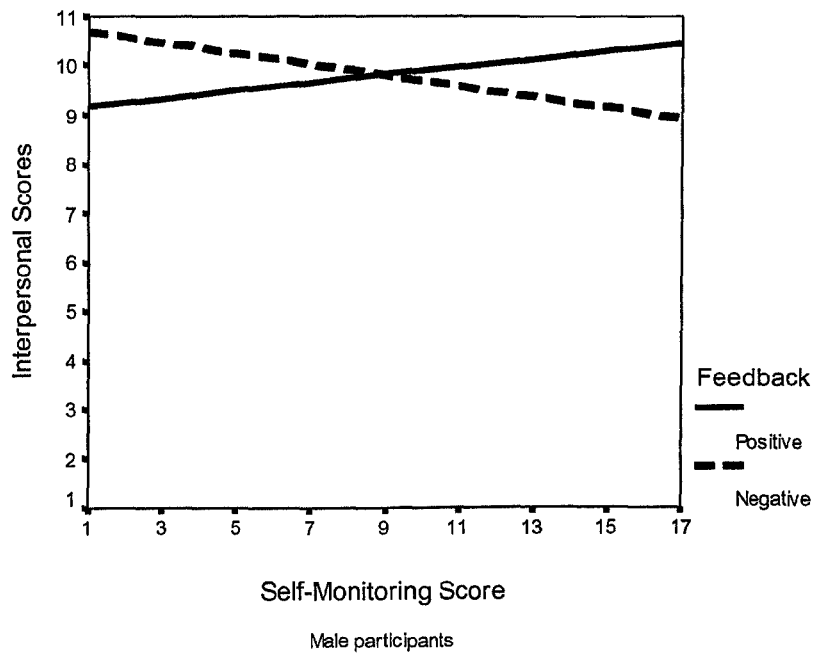


Figure 1. Interpersonal scores as a function of presenter sex, self-monitoring, and feedback

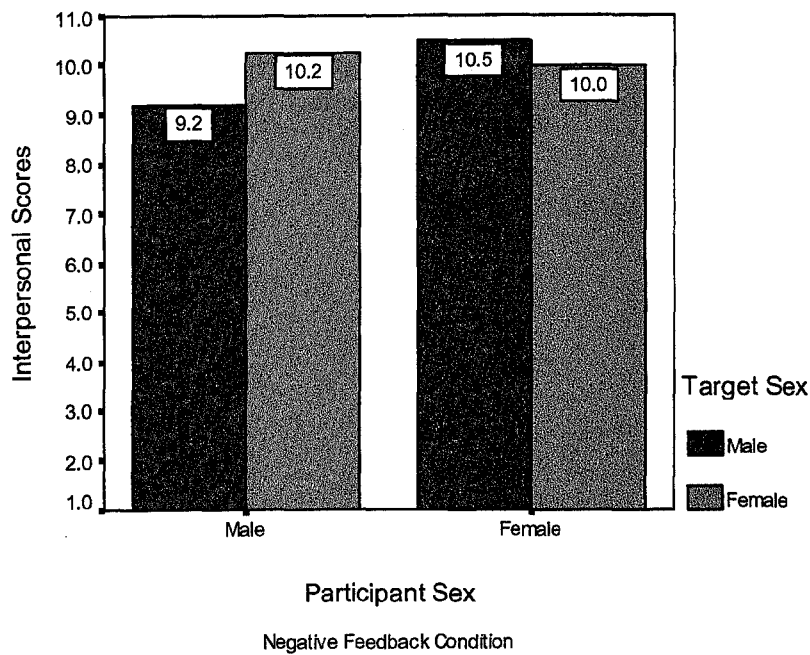
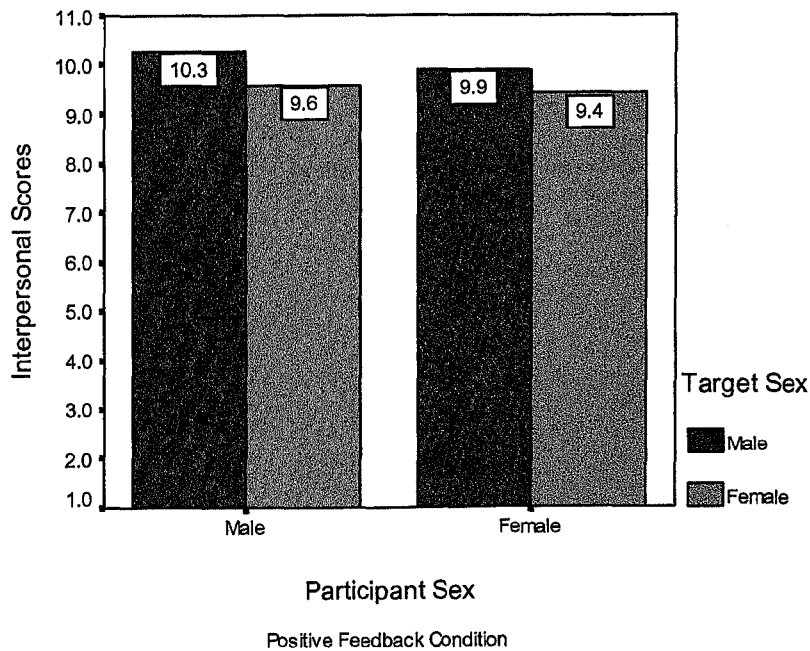


Figure 2. Interpersonal scores as a function of presenter sex, target sex, and feedback

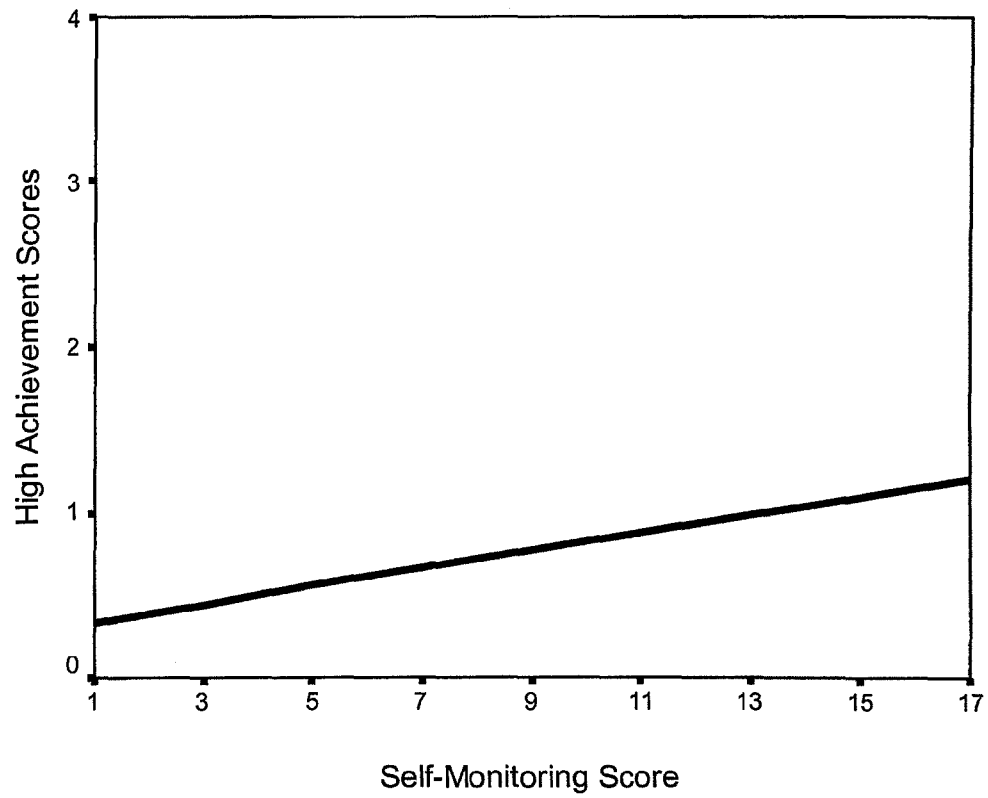


Figure 3. The relationship between self-monitoring and high achievement scores

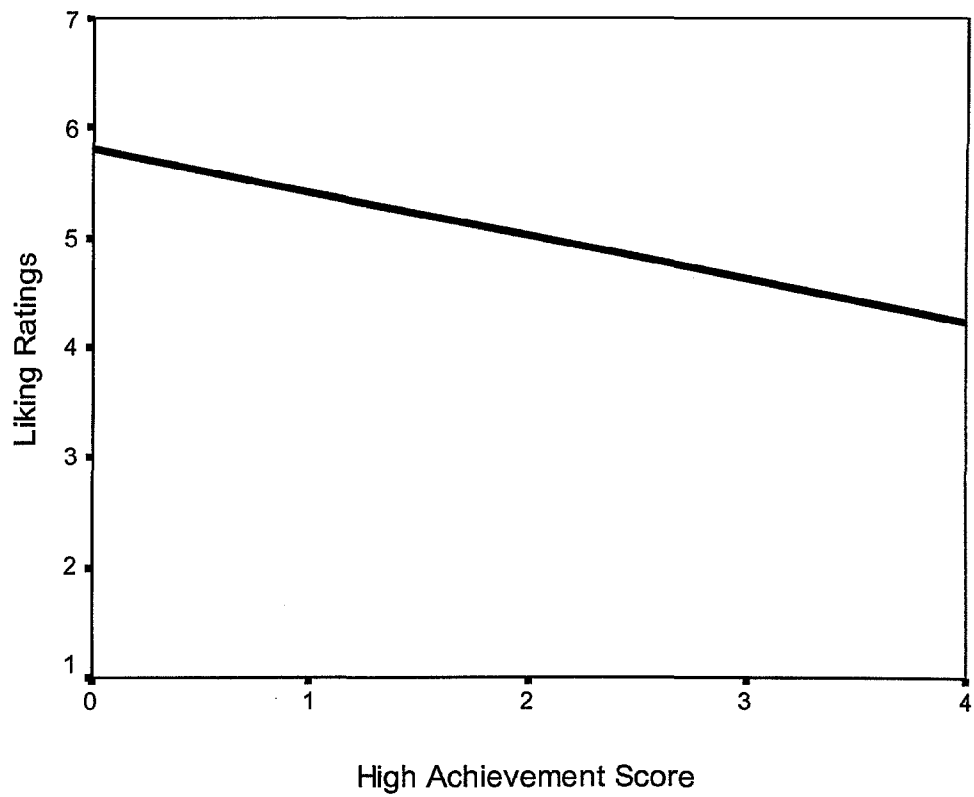


Figure 4. The relationship between high achievement scores and liking ratings

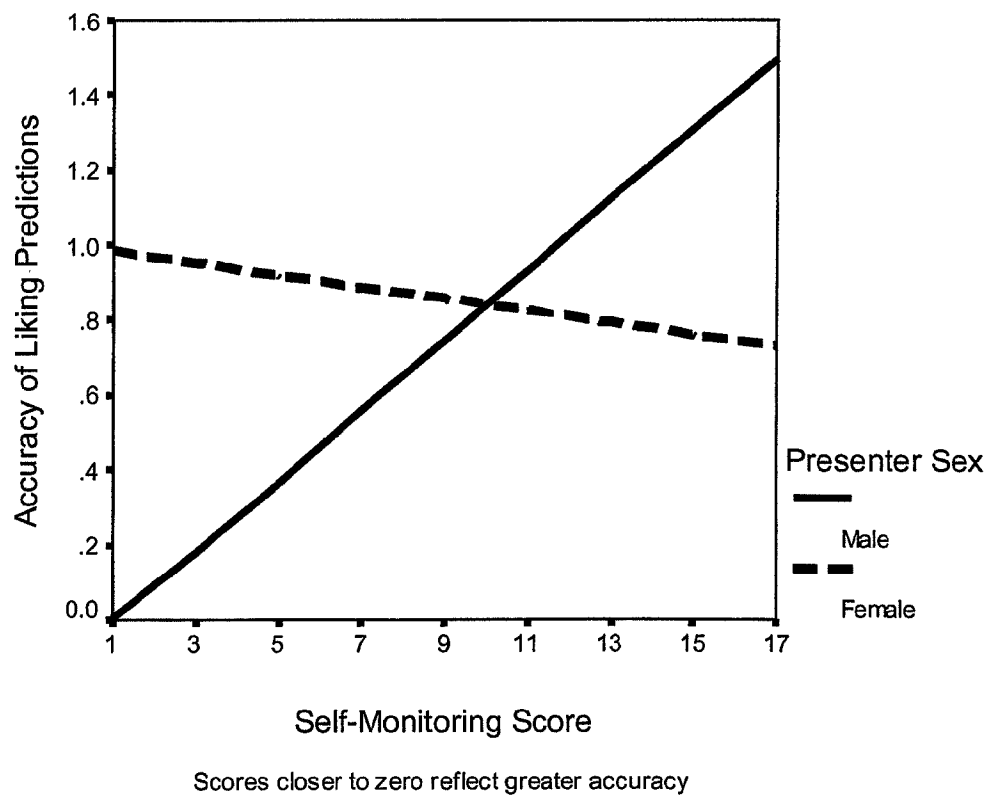


Figure 5. The relationship between sex and self-monitoring on the absolute difference between predicted and actual liking ratings

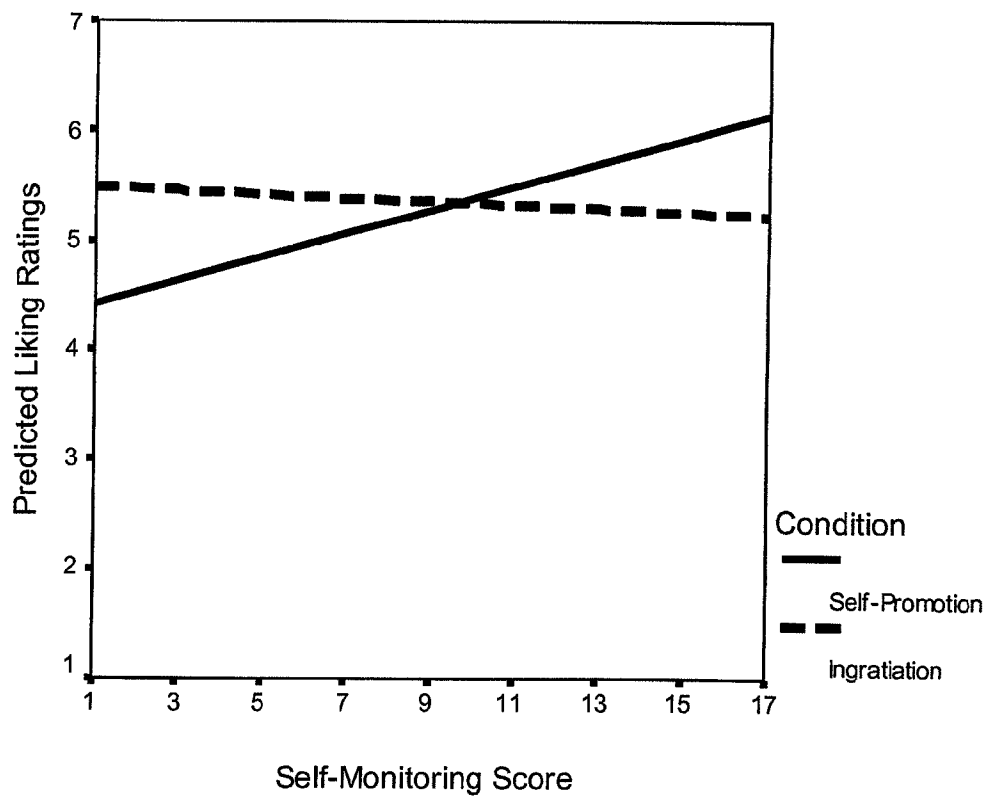


Figure 6. Predicted liking ratings as a function of self-monitoring and condition

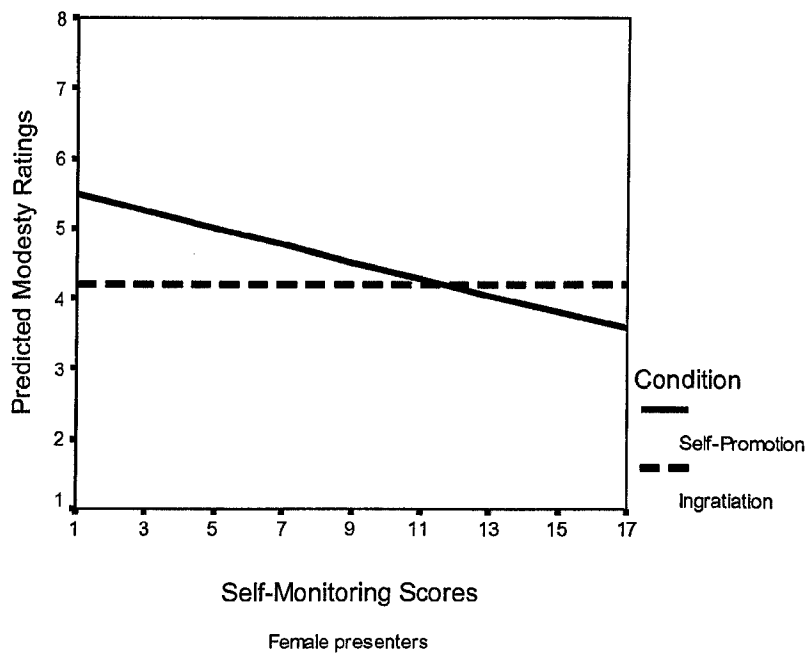
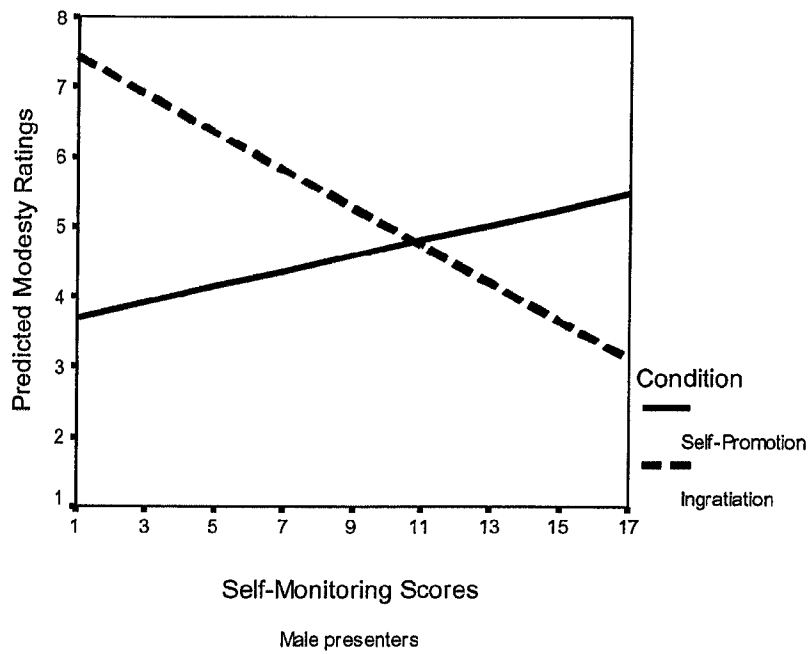


Figure 7. Predicted modesty ratings as a function of sex, self-monitoring, and condition

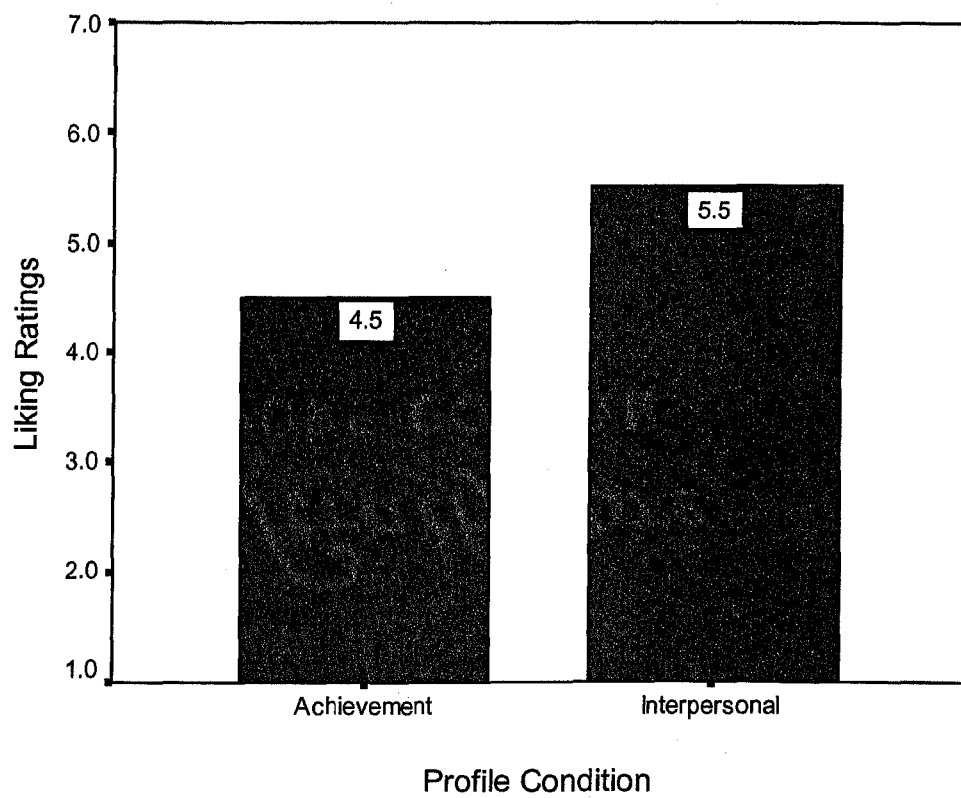
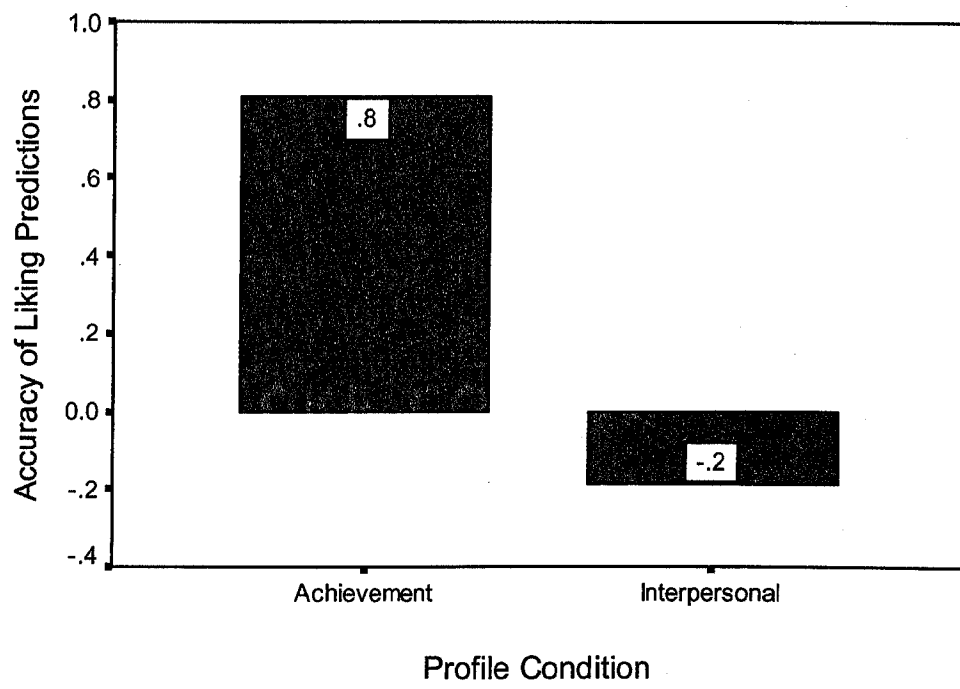


Figure 8. Liking ratings of profiles as a function of condition



Positive scores reflect over-estimations by Presenters
and negative scores reflect under-estimations

Figure 9. Accuracy of liking predictions as a function of condition

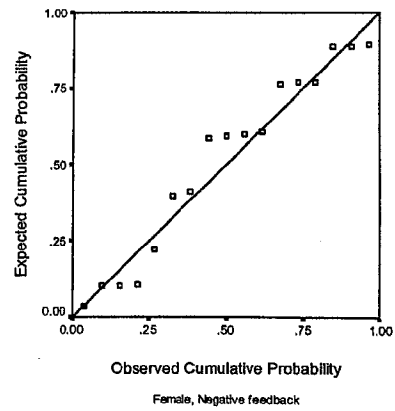
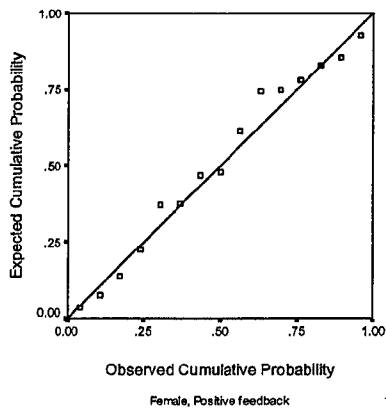
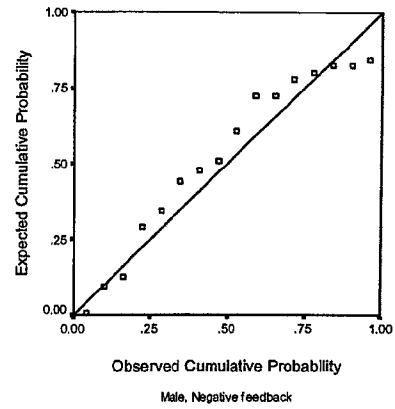
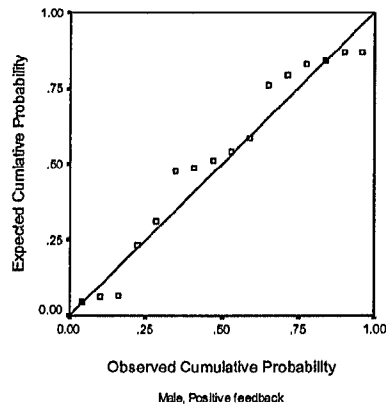


Figure 10. Normal probability plots of the relationship between self-monitoring and interpersonal scores as a function of sex and feedback condition

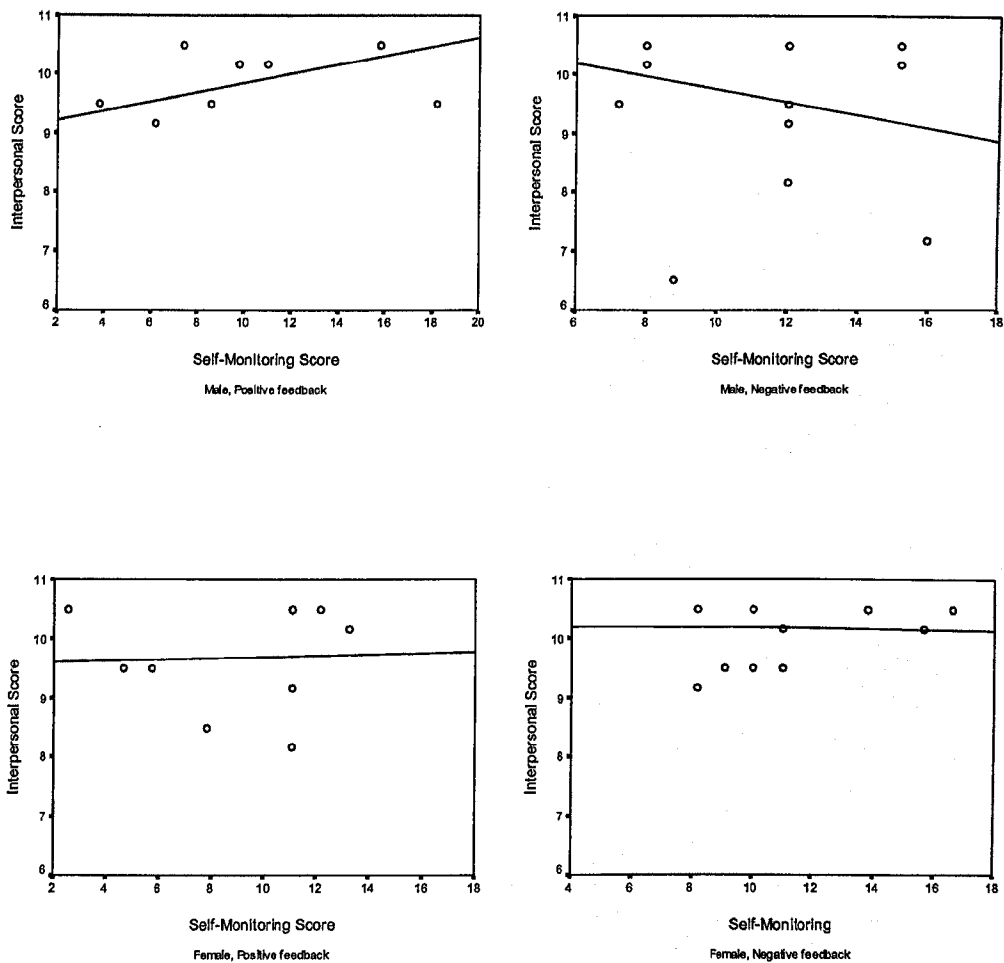


Figure 11. Sunflower scatterplots (including regression lines) of self-monitoring and interpersonal scores as a function of sex and feedback condition

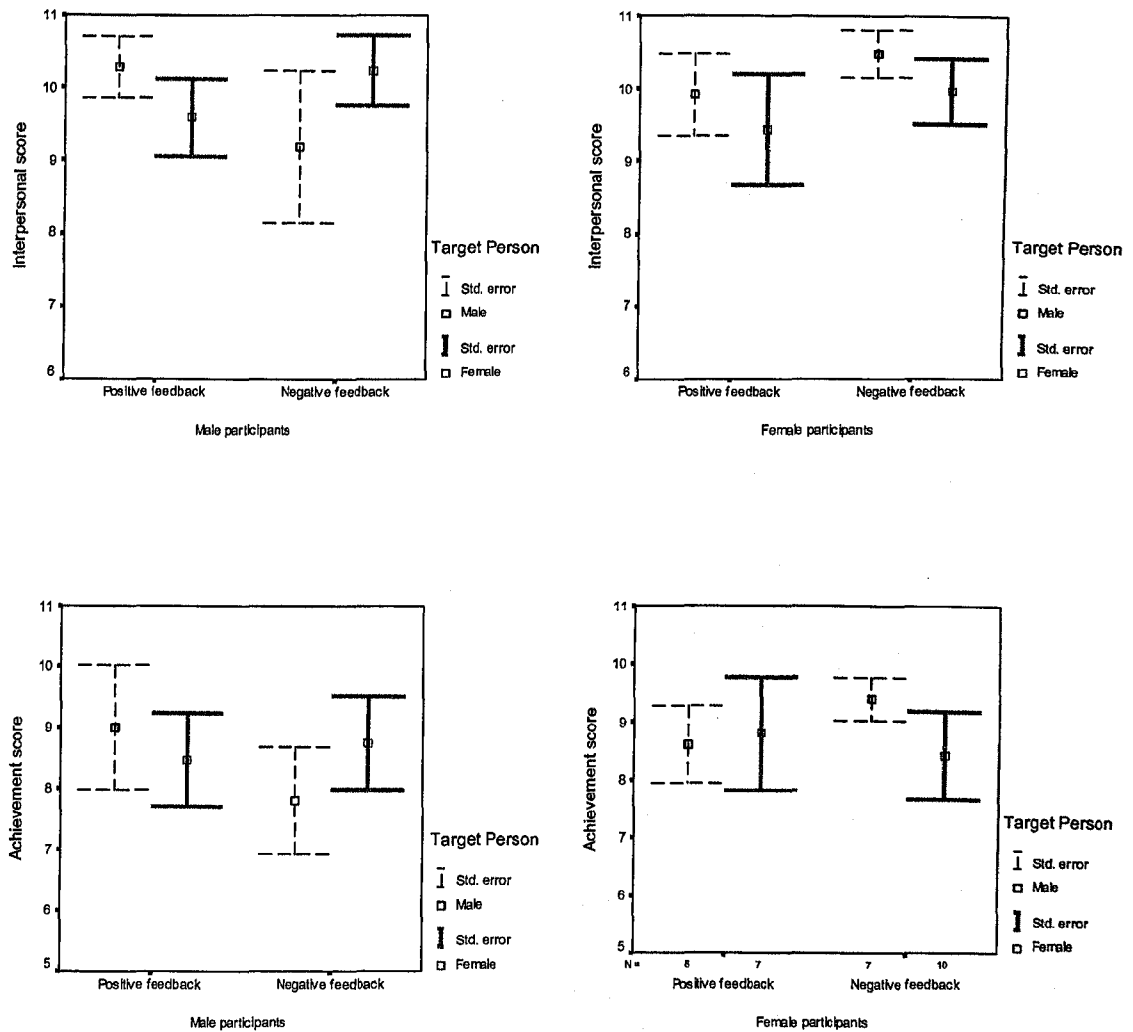
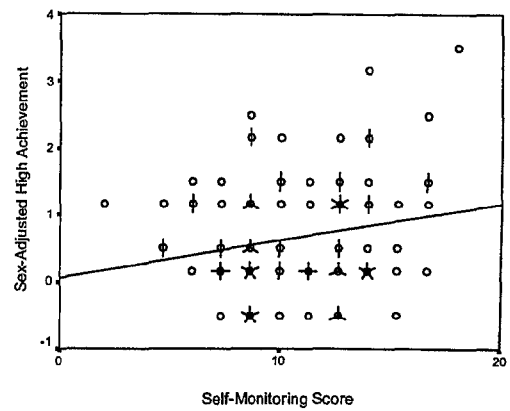
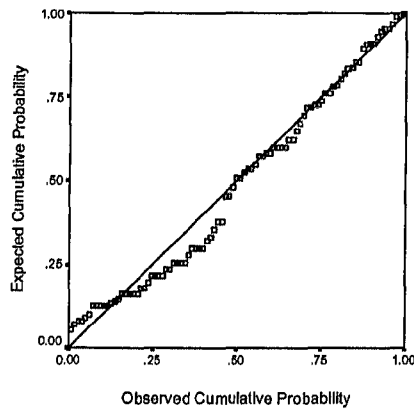
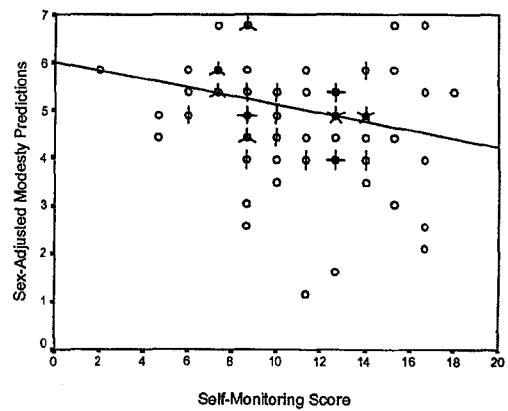
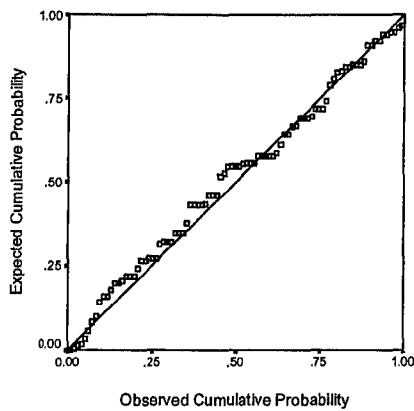


Figure 12. Means and standard errors of interpersonal and achievement scores within each participant Sex * Target Sex * Feedback condition



Self-monitoring and achievement scores



Self-monitoring and predicted modesty

Figure 13. Normal probability plots and sunflower scatterplots of the relationship between self-monitoring and two different outcomes (high achievement scores and modesty predictions) after controlling for sex

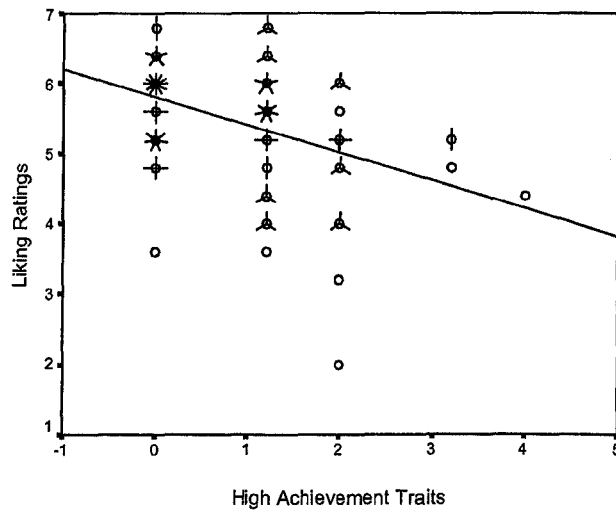
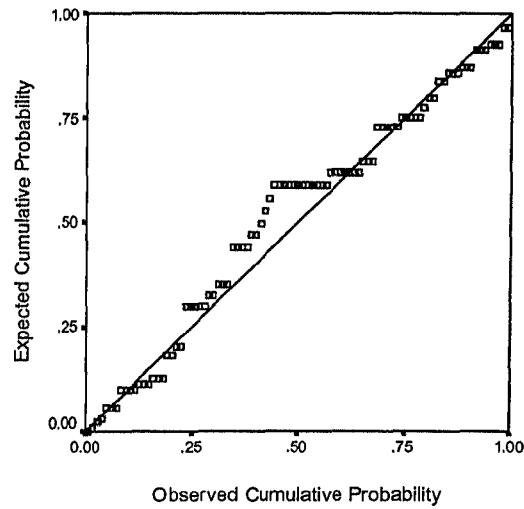


Figure 14. Normal probability plot and sunflower scatterplot of the relationship between high achievement traits and liking ratings

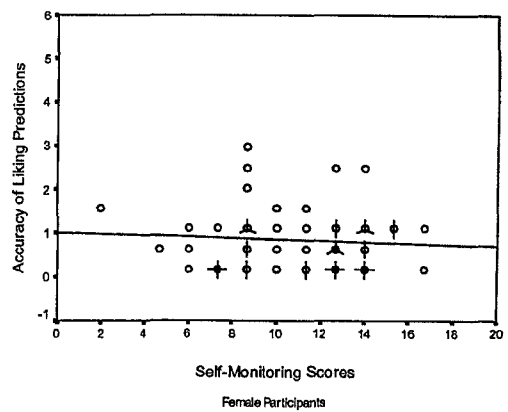
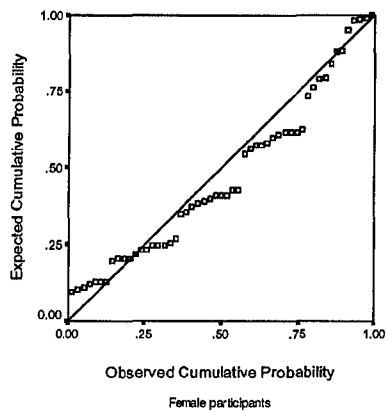
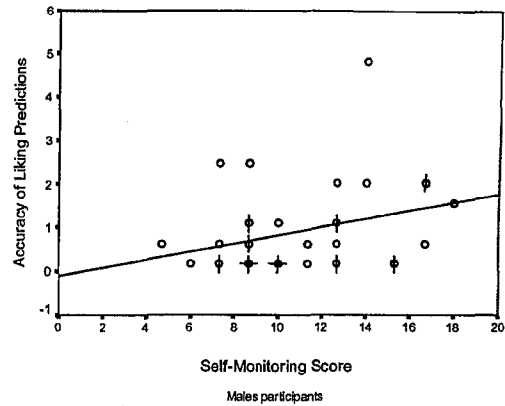
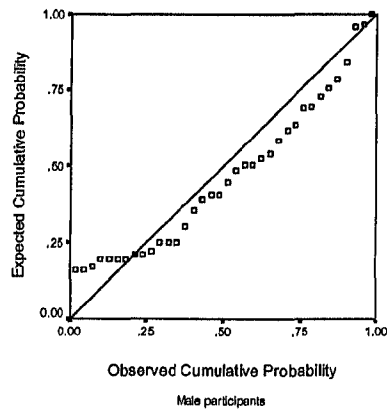


Figure 15. Normal probability plots and sunflower scatterplots of the relationship between self-monitoring and absolute accuracy of liking predictions as a function of participant sex

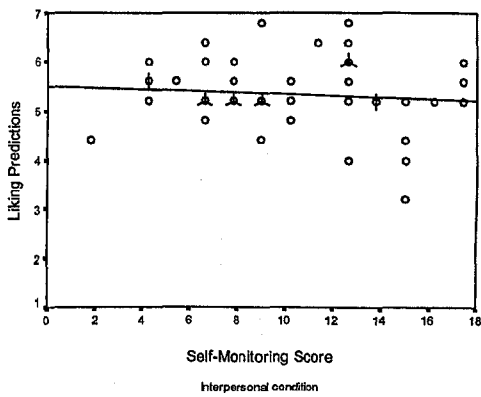
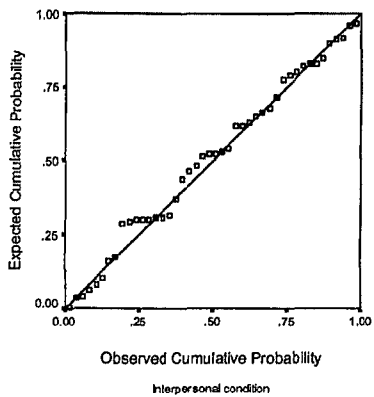
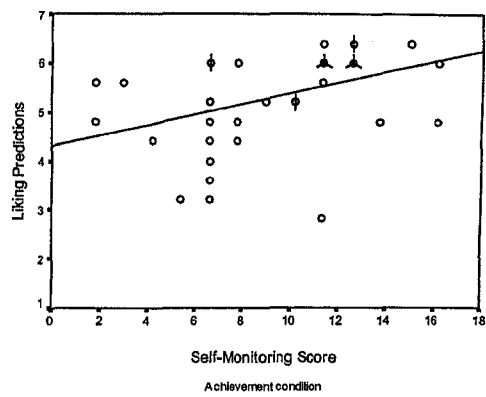
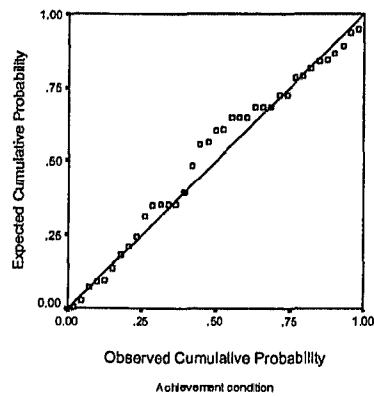


Figure 16. Normal probability plots and sunflower scatterplots of the relationship between self-monitoring and liking predictions as a function of self-presentation condition

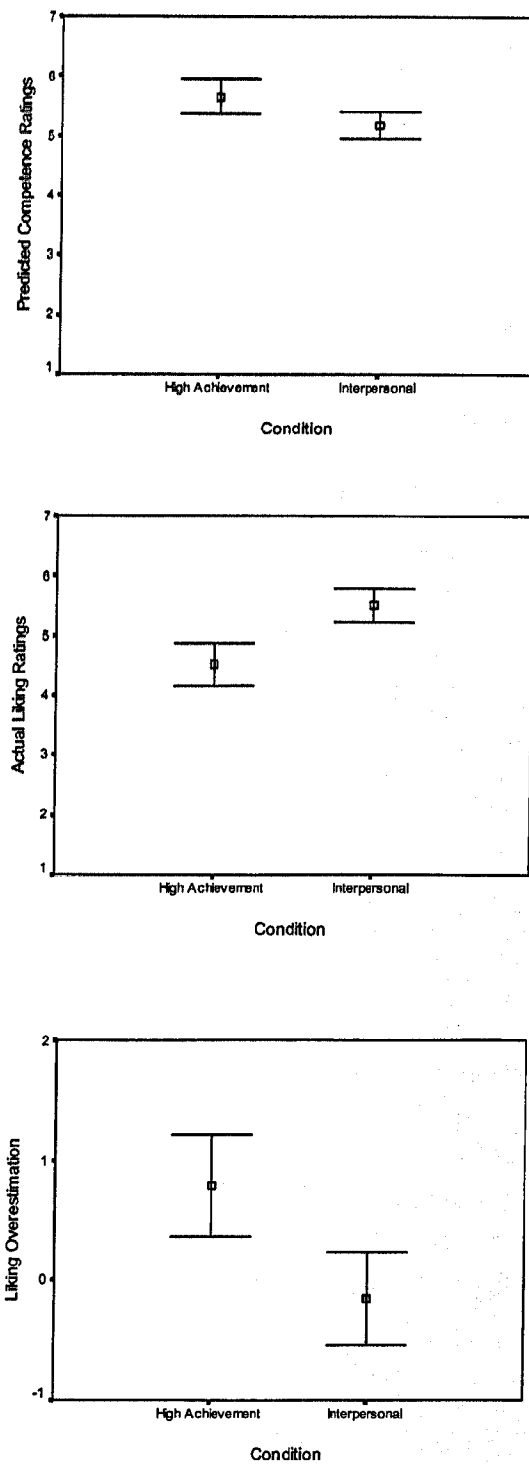


Figure 17. Means and standard errors within each self-presentation condition for predicted competence ratings, actual liking ratings, and liking overestimation

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